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ABSTRACT

This journal is dedicated to the exchange of ideas related to language instruction in all its aspects--teaching, learning, and research. Each issue contains several articles presenting the latest findings on language teaching, learning, classroom strategies and techniques, and scholarly and applied research. Regular features include book reviews and professional information and announcements. This document contains all issues of this publication from its founding in 1987 through 1999. (KFT)

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Dialog on Language Instruction, 1987-1999.

Lidia Woytak, Editor

Volumes 4-13

FL 026 562

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Dialog on Language Instruction

January 1987
Vol. 4, No. 1

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DIALOG ON LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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EDITORIAL

Any new project, especially a publication, needs an explanation and certainly some justification as its *raison d'être*. The first issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction* is no exception. In a sense, this is not a *new* publication but rather a phoenix-like "reincarnation" of earlier manifestations of professionalism in the history of the Defense Language Institute and its predecessors.

The history of DLI is filled with periods of ebb and flow in academic and pseudo-academic activities. This multi-faceted organization has always had a somewhat schizophrenic academic image ranging from that of a "trade-school" on the training side to that of a university (or at least a "post secondary educational institution") on the education side. As in any renaissance period, academic creativity at DLI seems to flourish more openly, in my opinion, whenever three major variables coincide to provide an appropriately fertile environment. These are: 1)command emphasis which provides encouragement for and recognition of genuine academic achievement; 2) an overall resource environment which is not so restrained as to inhibit professional growth by labeling it as "non-essential"; and 3) a broad recognition of a genuine need for foreign language as a priority component of national security.

If one takes professional publications and faculty seminars as two major indicators of professional activity at the "grass-roots" level (without counting the more operationally oriented activities related to research and curriculum development or the special interagency or international conferences), the peak periods of faculty productivity I have been able to identify are:

1960-1962. Several issues of the *US Army Language School Review* appeared and at least one open faculty seminar was held.
1969-1971; 1972-1973. A Commandant's Seminar was held annually and resulted in published proceedings.
1969-1974. A semi-formal *Dean's Newsletter* was published from one to four times annually with a variety of professional articles and reviews.
1975-1986. Sporadic faculty seminars were held under the auspices of the Academic Senate and Academic Advisory Council during this period.

1971-1982. The *FORUM* was published several times annually as both a teaching bulletin with a wide variety of professional articles and an information newsletter with a variety of feature articles and photographs.
1978-present. A quarterly master lecture series has been presented under a contract with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Most of these have been published and distributed.
1982-1985. *Foreign Language Learning Techniques and Strategies (FLLTS)* was published occasionally as part of the inservice faculty development program. Since its last issue was Volume 3, Number 2, we decided to carry this tradition forward so that this issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction* is designated as Volume 4, Number 1. So much for the recent history of publications and seminars.

It is refreshing to note that the current climate is especially favorable for creative productivity and professional growth. Not only is DLI's mission recognized as a high priority at all levels of the Department of Defense and the overall resource environment has improved considerably in recent years, but the most decisive factor currently is the command emphasis placed on professionalism and the priorities given to both professional development and growth by Colonel Monte R. Bullard, Commandant of DLI since September 1985. The appearance of this publication is but one of several manifestations of his strong encouragement to increase the academic capabilities of the DLI faculty and staff. A long list of such initiatives is found in the DLI Master Plan which meshes the vision of a fully professional academic institution with the realities of resource management by specifying resource requirements and deadlines for achieving the objective of each project and task. Despite increases in DLI resources during the past few years, the current resource picture faces two serious, yet counterposed, challenges: the government-wide efforts to cut back on all budget allocations in contrast with the continued increases in DLI student enrollment requirements. So far the Commandant has been successful in obtaining the support required to foster growth in both quantity and quality, including recent authorization to increase the size of the faculty. So we acknowledge the Commandant's leadership as the rationale for bringing about the appearance of this first issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

As noted elsewhere, the purpose of this publication is to promote professional dialog among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program. Hence, the title. Since this is a fresh start in that direction, we have been fortunate in having a number of manuscripts from both faculty and staff from which to select. The selection of articles was by no means arbitrary. Each submission, except for the lead guest article, was reviewed anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. We hope that increased contributions from the faculty and staff to future issues will enable us to maintain this level of quality. We also hope to include some contributions from students whose interests should also be represented in any full dialog about language instruction.

We are happy to start this issue with a guest article on the very pertinent subject of technology in language instruction. Then we have two articles by faculty members on the importance of cross-cultural communication in language instruction; one from a broad point of view, the other concerning a limited, yet dynamic, aspect of nonverbal communication. Finally, a staff member demonstrates the relationship between proficiency-oriented language instruction and the goals and objectives upon which any course should be based.

The purpose of the **Faculty Exchange** section is to encourage the sharing of ideas through less formal contributions. We start off with a brief overview of the status of research at DLI hoping to expand this into a separate section in the future. We then provide several faculty contributions based on four presentations at the annual meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages plus a report on one of the workshops. Next is a summary of the presentations given at a recent faculty seminar presented under the auspices of the Academic Advisory Council. Finally, we have reported on an interesting event which provided a sports-like competition among fellow Army linguists from one of the units in Europe.

The **Digest** section is intended as a way of sharing key articles of professional interest through the technique of summarization so that the ideas could be more readily available. The **Review** section presents two well prepared reviews of books which should interest our readers.

The **News and Views** section is intended to bring a variety of short notices, reports or comments which are relevant to our readers. This time we have a special item on the broader implications of bilingualism, a report from our Congressman on relevant legislation, a report on a proposed National Language Foundation, a report on our new capabilities in interactive video, a report on CALICO and a selected list of forthcoming conferences. We welcome similar submissions from our readers in the future, including comments of how this type of professional communication may better achieve its purpose.

In addition to the boost that new educational technology is giving to the field of language instruction, we would like to note that technology played an important role in putting together this issue. The power and efficiency of our electronic word-processing system is almost staggering, especially when one compares the volume of text material and the myriad number of corrections and adjustments involved in editing to the equivalent difficulties one might have encountered with the use of type-writers in preparing camera - ready material. Also the choice of fonts and the print quality of the laser printer make us grateful for these extra bonuses. Finally, the recent arrival of an electronic scanner capable of converting a typed article of 15 to 20 pages into digitized form on a floppy disc in a matter of minutes has made some of the problems inherent in editing appear to be inconsequential - and almost a joy. So there were moments of enjoyment mixed with moments of frustration in playing midwife to this new venture.

Without hesitation, I would like to express my deep appreciation to a number of people who contributed to the launching of this publication. First, the members of the DLI board have been most helpful and supportive from beginning to end in a number of areas. Next, the members of the editorial advisory board gave us a great deal of important advice and encouragement that will continue to be useful for a long time to come. Lidia Woytak deserves a special accolade for sustained and intensive collaboration during all phases of development. Her mark is evident in several major contributions to this issue but not so evident in other areas where her work was still critical in getting the product out. The third member of our production team, Mrs. Virginia Wilson, deserves special appreciation for her dedication and patience in getting the myriad of words, and "bits" to line up

in proper order both on the visual display and later on the dot-matrix printer. Only she knows how many times some of the items have been produced and reproduced as we experimented in searching for the proper format. We owe many thanks also to John Dege, (ATFL-DIN-RPP) the DLI "czar" and "coach" of wordprocessing for academic purposes, for his ready support and willingness to continue in solving a large variety of production problems. We owe special thanks to Steve Selivanovsky, (ATFL-DIN-FS) for his creative artistry and his willingness to produce ten different cover designs before we came to a final decision.

We also wish to acknowledge the assistance given in editing by Major David Clark, USMCR; in the emergency relief provided in wordprocessing by Peter Schulz (ATFL-DES), by Kay Rodriquez (ATFL-DIN-CPB), and by Annie Frazier (ATFL-DGE-AC); in all aspects of layout and electronic graphics by Dennis Leatherman (ATFL-IMI-V); and finally, in printing and binding by Richard Miles (ATFL-IM-P) and his colleagues.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TECHNOLOGY IN THE 21ST CENTURY*

Frank Otto,
Brigham Young University

INTRODUCTION

You have probably already witnessed considerable interest expressed recently in designing and implementing a variety of exemplary programs to teach first, second, and foreign languages with the assistance of computers.

There is no doubt that CAI/IL (Computer Assisted Instruction/Interactive Learning) can make significant contribution to teaching and learning more effectively by providing teachers, administrators, and students options that would not otherwise be available in their teaching/learning environment; indeed, the primary purpose of CAI/IL is to enrich and enhance that environment.

I shall focus my comments on offering an up-to-date information source vis-a-vis the status of technology in language teaching, to provide direction to the practitioner and teacher trainer who are faced with the application of software and hard-ware in their daily instruction, and to suggest direction for further research and implementation to the profession at large.

MAKING THE BEST USE OF CAI/IL

We must pay special attention to integrating CAI/IL programs in such a way that they are fully incorporated as integral features of the instruction program to be tailored to needs, interests, and learning styles of individual students. While the application of IL is certainly not a new goal among educators, interactive learning (IL) incorporates instructional specifications that are pedagogically sound while requiring active student participation at every level of language acquisition. Branching and learner options are increased by the use of new technologies.

---

*This is an abbreviated version of a paper presented as the keynot address at the June 1986 annual conference of the NATO affiliate, Bureau for International Language Coordination, for which DLI was the host.

Language Achievement Applying the Notional Functional Approach Exemplary in CAI/IL Programs is characterized by:

-Students making more use of language provided them by expanding their learning options.

-Teachers going beyond the textbook to lead students to proficiency by offering a variety of learning options.

-Students being engaged in meaningful learning based on realistic topics, events and situations.

-Students being given opportunities to use language for real-world purposes, including language for special purposes and on-the-job training (OJT).

-Students being guided towards proficiency from the first day of the course in order to increase their proficiency as significantly as possible.

Much has been said and written about IL and the notional-functional approach. The following guidelines are useful when measuring the extent to which a CAI/IL program is pedagogically sound:

Priming. The purpose of priming is to give the student a chance to become comfortable and familiar with the sight, sound, and sense of new language before being required to produce it. Priming lays the affective and cognitive foundation upon which to build productive skills later.

Prompting. The purpose of prompting is to develop the student's ability to produce appropriate language when prompted.

Performing. The purpose of the performing stage is to provide sample opportunities for students to use language creatively to accomplish their own purposes in a way acceptable within the new target culture.

Students are expected to progress from priming to prompting to performing in order for a program to be truly interactive. the most important feature of model CAI/IL programs is the control that teachers and students have in the form of options provided by the special courseware.

GUIDELINES OF EFFECTIVE CAI/IL PROGRAMS

While there are many guidelines that may be listed for effective CAI/IL programs, the following are the most important:

Perceived Purpose. Learners learn best if they can see or develop for themselves a reason for learning the material being presented.

Appropriate Practice. Appropriate Practice means doing what the objective calls for. If our objective is that the learner will be able to obtain services in a restaurant (order food and pay for it), then the best possible way to achieve that objective is for the learner to practice in a role-playing situation through simulation.

Graduated Sequence. Graduated Sequence involves progressing from the easy to the difficult, from the familiar to the unfamiliar, from the simple to the complex, from the clearly stated to the implied. It is based on the assumption that success and increased confidence are very important factors in the learning process.

Knowledge of Results. While we learn by doing, we can learn to do things incorrectly by practicing them incorrectly. Knowledge of Results involves telling learners whether they are doing something correctly or incorrectly; and if they are doing it incorrectly, telling them as precisely and as timely as possible what they are doing wrong and how to correct it. This process allows students to avoid habituated errors.

Individual Differentiation. This principle is based on the assumption that not all learners are created equal. They have different entry skills, aptitudes and attitudes. Every effortshould be made to permit each learner to proceed at a pace that challenges yet permits success. There need be no correlation attempted between the number of attempts rate and the evaluation of student success. This approach allows the correlation between aptitude and achievement to be reduced to zero.

Fail-Safe Protected Learning Environment. Students are not permitted to fail. The record-keeping function allows them to proceed as long as an acceptable level of mastery is maintained. We use 80 percent in BYU CALI [Computer Assisted Language Instruction] Research Projects.) Remediation, review, and additional examples/explanations are provided when students fall below the agreed upon level of mastery in order to bring them back on track so that their learning experience will be successful.

GENERAL RATIONALE FOR THE USE OF EXEMPLARY CAI/IL PROGRAMS IN TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES

1. CAI programs should be used to individualize and personalize student interaction in a manner not possible in normal classroom settings:

    -through student control of rate of presentation;

    -through availability of help features;

    -through individualized branching for remedial instruction;

    -through program ability to adjust the level of difficulty according to the student's needs;

    -through student ability to continue receiving instruction and practice until a level of mastery is attained;

    -through immediate correction of errors so that mistakes will not become habituated.

2. CAI programs can provide for language-learning experiences not otherwise available by utilizing simulations involving role play.

3. CAI programs with a record-keeping function provide both the student and teacher with on-going evaluation that would be difficult in most conventional classroom settings.

SPECIFIC EXAMPLES OF APPLICATIONS OF CAI TO VARIOUS SKILL AREAS

Authentic material should be used to promote communicative competence through teaching techniques and learning activities that enhance:

1. Vocabulary Learning

   -Games or word puzzles in which the teacher inputs the vocabulary and the program converts it into a game (i.e., *Crossword Magic* by Mindscape).

2. Grammar

   -Exercises in word order where the meaning of the resulting sentence is demonstrated by animated graphics (i.e., *Make a Sentence* - - PLATO).

   -Programs that build the display interactively as certain grammatical concepts are explained, thus drawing the student's attention to the pertinent part of the display.

   -Exploratory CAI in which the student is free to ask questions of the computer and explore the target language and its structure (i.e., *Grammarland* by John Higgins).

3. Reading Comprehension

   -Programs which incorporate repetition or highlighting of relevant parts of a passage in response to missed comprehension questions.

   -Cloze exercises in which the teacher or student can control the number and placement of blanks.

   -Programs to increase reading speed by the use of various scrolling techniques.

4. Writing

   -Programs that take advantage of the computer's word processing capabilities, making it very easy for the student to edit

-Programs with on-demand, built-in bilingual dictionaries.

-Programs with the ability to highlight a certain word or phrase and have a translation provided.

5. Translation

   -Programs with on-demand, built-in bilingual dictionaries.

   -Ability to highlight a certain word or phrase and have a translation provided.

6. Auditory Discrimination (Audio peripheral required such a Kay Elemetric's *Visi-Pitch*)

   -Programs which display phonemes on the screen along with aural presentation of minimal pairs and include more practice in the student's problem areas.

7. Listening Comprehension (Audio peripheral required such as a non-computer or computer-controlled audio cassette player [Tandberg], videotape, videodisc, or interactive television [ITV])

   -Programs in which the student hears a passage in the foreign language is asked comprehension questions, and is given immediate feedback and remediation.

   -Simulations of real-life situations in which the student is required to respond to directions, a request, etc., and is branched to a simulated result of that response (i.e., *Montevidisco* by Brigham Young University).

   -Listening comprehension activities coupled with video making it possible to practice understanding non-verbal communication.

   -Dictation activities where the feedback is detailed and immediate and the student can ask for clues to make corrections.

8. Culture

-Culture capsules such as a program in which the student makes a choice of what to do in a certain situation and then receives an explanation of the probable consequences of that choice (i.e. *Correct Behavior the Mexican Way* by Langenscheidt).

-Audio/Video simulations which take the student through real-life situations (i.e., *Klavier im Haus* and *Montevidisco).*

9. Additional technologies

-Satellite telecasts via PEACESAT (i.e., TELEclass by John Wellstein and John Southworth).

PERSONNEL AND ORGANIZATIONS INVOLVED IN THE CAI/IL ENVIRONMENT

Ideally, our professional language organizations should cooperate with teacher education institutions and with hardware/software/courseware vendors to offer pre-service and in-service workshops involving the most feasible applications of CAI/IL programs to the teaching and learning of languages.

While most of the associations illustrated in Figure 2 are self-explanatory, there are some special observations and supporting comments that would be helpful.

1. Professional language organizations must interrelate with educational institutions and both should maintain an ongoing dialog with hardware/software/courseware vendors and publishers so that all three can communicate as meaningfully as possible with teachers and administrators involved with CAI/IL programs.

CALICO (Computer Assisted Language Learning and Instruction Consortium) with its Journal, Database, annual Summer Institute, CAB (CALICO Audio Bookshelf) tape and study series, Monograph Series, and other special programs and activities, is the only professional organization that exists with the sole purpose of assisting its members in applying technology specifically to the teaching, learning, and processing of first, second, and foreign languages. For those who want to become

Levels of Teacher Involvement

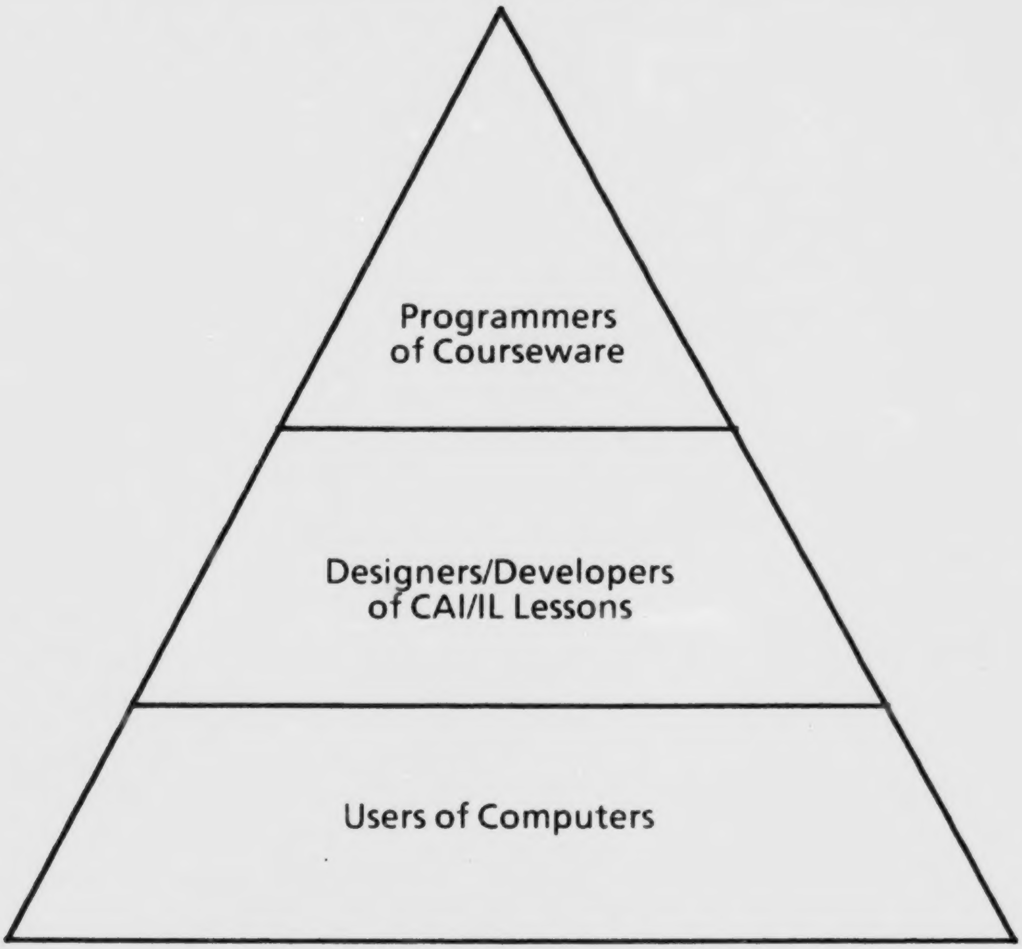
Programmers
of Courseware
Designers/Developers
of CAI/IL Lessons
Users of Computers

Figure 1
These levels of computer literacy and the extent to which teachers/administrators are involved indicate that workshops must be tailored to the needs of individuals grouped as illustrated above.

involved with CAI/IL by sharing information with others in this field, there is no better plan than to join CALICO and to encourage your institution to join as well.

2. Because the challenge to educational institutions is so immense in terms of becoming familiar with CAI/IL programs and CALI/CALL applications plus the need to become familiar with a rapidly expanding array of hardware/software/courseware possibilities, many educational institutions are forming

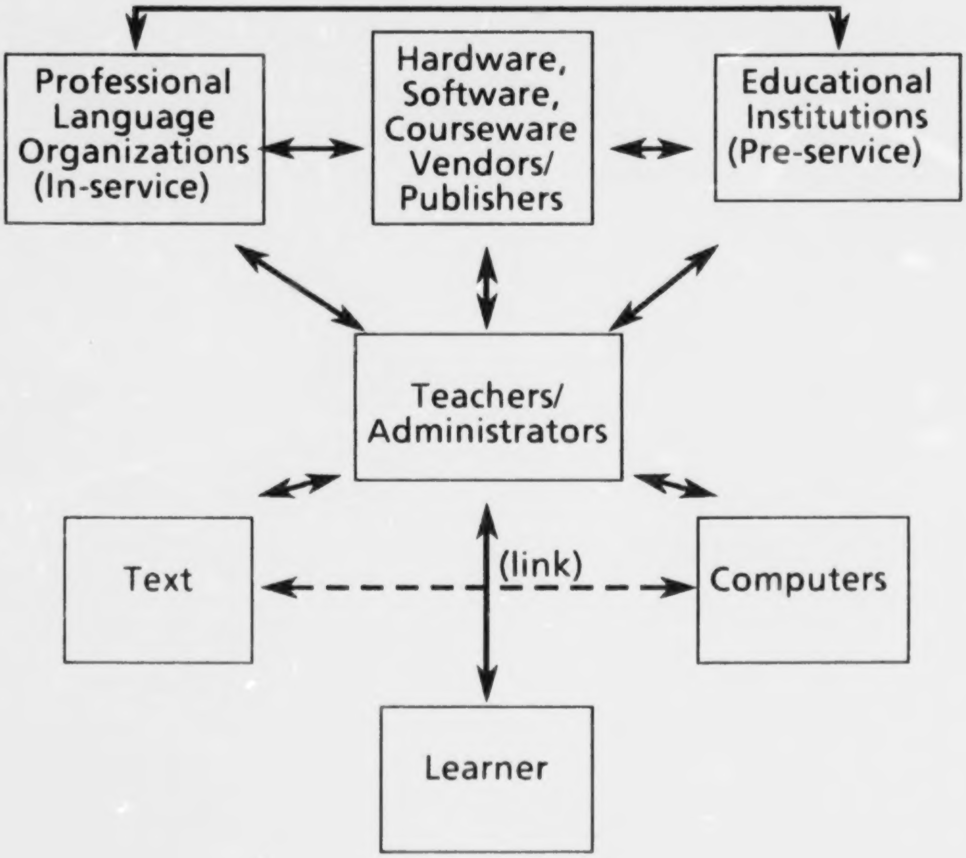
Professional Language Organizations (In-service)
Hardware, Software, Courseware Vendors/ Publishers
Educational Institutions (Pre-service)
Teachers/ Administrators
Text
(link)
Computers
Learner

Figure 2

consortia in order to meet their needs. It is hoped that these educational institutions--whether operating as members of consortia or individually--will fully utilize the programs available through CALICO and other professional language organizations who seek to assist those wishing to develop understanding and expertise with new technologies and their applications to the teaching and learning of languages.

3. It now becomes the responsibility of each educational institution to scrutinize applications of technology to the teaching and learning of languages, prioritize needs in relation to the capability of the educational institution to staff and conduct research in these areas, and to offer top-quality teacher education courses that will enable graduates to meet with

confidence the newly emerging needs of teachers and administrators.

4. Teachers/administrators must become involved as soon as possible and to a degree in keeping with the needs of their programs and students. It no longer makes sense for members of our profession to wait for any reason until new products are developed, new educational programs are in place, leadership is provided directly by their institutions or school districts, etc. The immediate need is for all of us to become involved in a way that is most meaningful to us personally. We must all find our place on the learning curve in order for this most important new form of instruction to grow and be successful in our educational program.

Stages of Progress in Instructional Programs Utilizing Computers and Interactivity

CONVENTIONAL	TRANSITIONAL	HIGH-TECH
past	present	future

Figure 3

Most of us understand what is meant by conventional teacher/text instructional programs since we have been working with pencil-paper approaches to the teaching and learning of foreign languages for some time. While we have added media in the form of opaque and overhead projections and supplementary taped materials, most of us consider these approaches to be conventional.

We are now firmly entrenched in what I choose to call the transitional phase; that is, we have sought to supplement the conventional teacher/text approach with applications of computers at a very limited level of interactivity. Unfortunately, most of our efforts in this phase have resulted in the use of CAI/IL to supplement existing text materials that we refer to as "basic instructional materials." While some programs are highly innovative and have succeeded in motivating both teachers and learners, the tendency is for us to consider CAI/IL approaches as peripheral to the central task at hand of dealing with "text" materials.

The high-tech phase opens new dimensions to us and promises to have an immense impact on the teaching and learning of foreign languages. Since the computer is rapidly establishing itself as a valid instructional medium, teachers and materials developers are faced with the question of how to integrate the computer into the traditional teacher/textbook classroom so that it enriches and enhances that environment by fully utilizing all capabilities of hardware/software/courseware.

The following section discusses how we may go about achieving full integration and application of the high-tech phase. Considerations in implementing CAI/IL programs indicate that:

1. We must design teacher educational materials and workshops that will bring instructors up to speed so that a smooth transition is made between present courseware/procedures and those to be developed during the high-tech phase.

2. Transitional core lesson material must be selected/developed in such a way that they may be repackaged in keeping with simulation formats to be made interactive for use during the high-tech phase.

3. Equipment specifications must be developed according to needs required to deliver instructional programs selected during the transition phase.

4. A plan of operations must be developed in order to provide a full Gestalt so that personnel can develop a part-whole relationship and smooth continuity from the transition phase to the high-tech phase.

5. A thorough study should be made of space utilization patterns so that equipment, courseware, and procedures are fully operational within the constraints of available space and facilities.

Considerations in Implementing CAI/IL Program

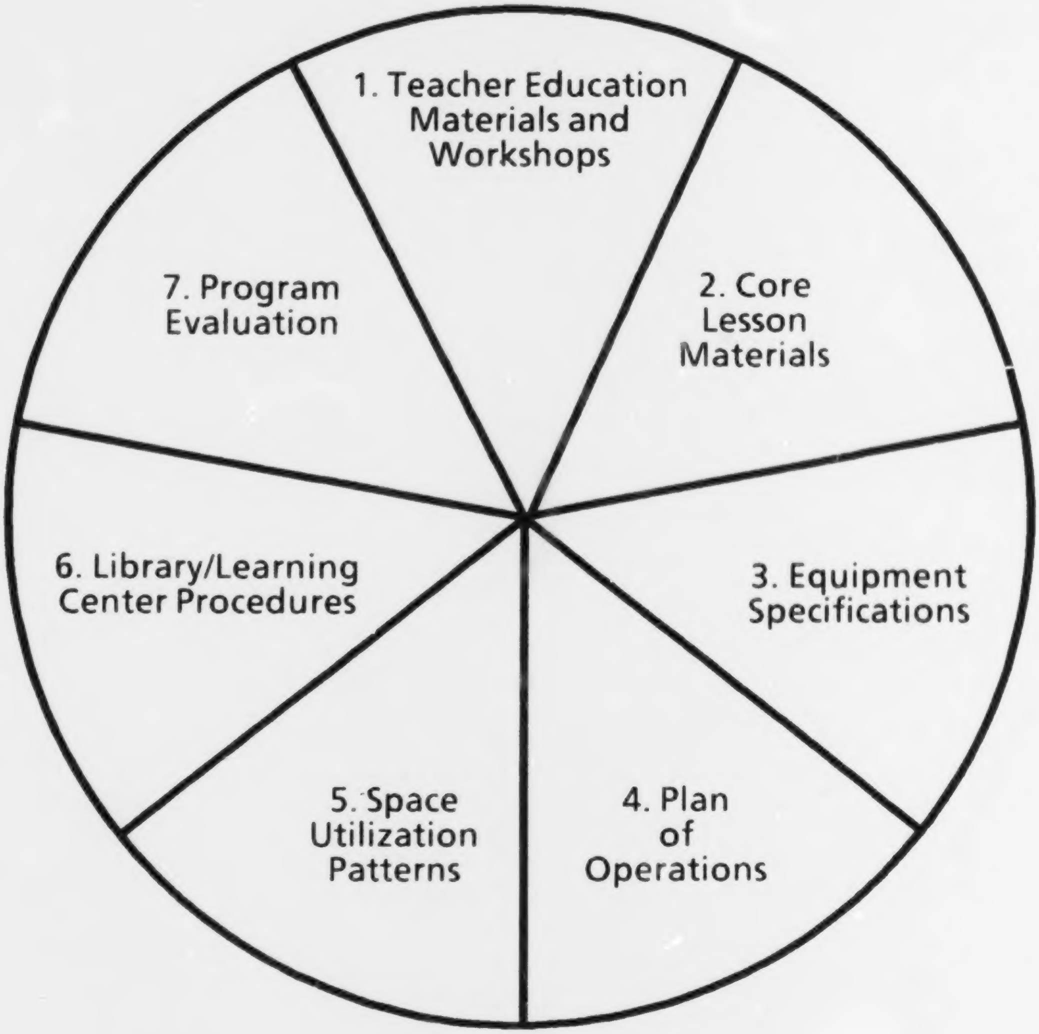
1. Teacher Education Materials and Workshops
2. Core Lesson Materials
3. Equipment Specifications
4. Plan of Operations
5. Space Utilization Patterns
6. Library/Learning Center Procedures
7. Program Evaluation

Figure 4

6. Library and learning centers must be developed so that proctors and monitors serve as effectively as possible in their roles as supervisors and facilitators.

7. Current programs must be evaluated in order to determine the extent to which they may be feasibly included as part of the high-tech phase, or adapted successfully to fit with

modifications that will enhance the entire instructional program.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS TO BE ADDRESSED BY PROFESSIONAL LANGUAGE ORGANIZATIONS/EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS SEEKING TO PROVIDE GUIDANCE TO MEMBERS/STUDENTS INVOLVED WITH CAI/IL

Our professional language organizations and educational institutions must take the leadership role in providing guidelines for both in-service and pre-service teacher education programs that will lead to acceptable answers for the following questions:

1. What roles should teachers and administrators play in the selection of CAI/IL courseware? In order for an exemplary CAI/IL curriculum to be established, enabling and terminal teaching and learning objectives must be defined. Only teachers, administrators and instructional designers are in a position to state educational objectives in such a way that hardware and software specialists can design systems that are in keeping with the stated goals of the program.

2. What roles should teachers and administrators play in the design, development, programming and evaluation of CAI/IL materials developed "in house"? Most observers who have had opportunities to work in the area of courseware development would agree that teachers and administrators are best involved as designers and developers of lesson materials. Very few teachers have had opportunities to become involved enough with program-ming to fully understand systems capabilities and options for innovative and sophisticated applications in the area of programming. While workshops/seminars are available for teachers who want to learn more about computers, these sessions seldom are designed to meet the specific needs of language teachers. Moreover, those who have participated as members of courseware development teams have observed that teachers must not be overtaxed by being expected to provide exemplary lesson design and lesson development strategies in addition to having the responsibility for programming and evaluating courseware developed "in house."

3. Realistically, what should we expect CAI/IL courseware to enable us to do that we cannot do easily or would like help in accomplishing? The needs in this area are most critical since they serve as the basis for determining exactly what tasks and assignments should be addressed in both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs. These needs will vary depending upon the level of proficiency and the extent to which CAI/IL is an integral component of the instructional program.

4. What expectations should we assign to CAI/IL as the results of needs assessments and task analyses? Without teacher and administrator input in completing needs assessment and task analyses, the CAI/IL program is doomed to failure through misuse or disuse. Of course, in addition to input mentioned in these areas, there must be complete support expressed for the new program by all teachers and administrators.

5. How may we most effectively obtain the involvement of students in the revision and improvement of our CAI/IL programs? Students are anxious to be of assistance as we go about revising and improving CAI/IL programs in which they are involved. Our experience has been that student involvement in the revision and improvement of courseware correlates most positively with increased stu-dent motivation regarding CAI/IL programs. We have also experienced an increase in student/teacher/administrator satisfaction when all participants are involved in suggesting revisions and improvements to their courseware.

CHALLENGE

Whatever our future may be in CAI/IL, the extent to which we will be successful depends more on teacher and administrator participation than upon any other single variable. We hope that you will accept the challenge to become involved in a way that is meaningful to you.

CULTURAL DISTANCE AND THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING PROCESS

Mehmet Ali Çiçekdag

ABSTRACT *This paper tries to provide some answers to the following questions: How does lack of communication breed conflict? When and under what circumstances do prejudices come about? What happens when one's own standards are applied to foreign cultures? Why do people speaking different languages have different world views? What should we teach when teaching culture? How is cultural distance measured? What is culture shock and when does one experience it? What are stereotyping and ethnocentrism? What role do time, space and kinship ties play in culture and communication? How do traditional and modern individuals differ? Are there positive or negative correlations between cultural distance and foreign language teaching/learning?*

The conclusion is that cultural distance inhibits cross-cultural communication, including foreign language teaching/learning when carried out independently from culture. At the same time, cultural distance between students and foreign language instructors who are native speakers can contribute to learning if culture is taught systematically as part of the curriculum.

THE PROBLEM

In 1979 a President's report concluded that:

> At a time when the resurgent forces of nationalism and of ethnic and linguistic consciousness so directly affect global realities, the U.S. requires far more reliable capacities to communicate with its allies, analyze the behavior of potential adversaries, and earn the trust and sympathies of the uncommitted. Yet, there is a widening

> between these needs and the American competence to understand and deal successfully with other peoples in a world in flux. (President's Commission 1979: 1)

Since then, the destabilizing forces in the world have gained in strength, and despite increased efforts in problem-solving, U.S. competence in communicating with them effectively has fallen short.

LACK OF COMMUNICATION

Most social scientists agree that behind most aggression and conflict lies a lack of communication as well as a lack of contact. However, not only the quantity of communication, but also the quality is quite relevant to conflict both at individual and international levels. The messages which are passed between individuals do not always lead to a better understanding. Both cultural and linguistic barriers have adverse effects on relations. Misunderstanding and prejudice often stem from the fact that daily routines and priorities are different in different cultures. Even within an apparently homogeneous language community, varieties of the same language may be culturally divisive (Bickley 1982: 1OO).

It is generally believed that increased interaction between individuals and nations belonging to different cultures will reduce prejudice and inter-group tension and improve relations among individuals, groups, and nations. However, this can occur only when certain conditions are met. Members of alien or minority groups should be the same or higher in status than the members of the host or majority group; the contact should be more intimate than casual, more pleasant than unpleasant; and the climate and setting of contact must be suitable (Amir 1969: 338). Amir points out some conditions which strengthen prejudice: When the contact produces competition or frustration or lowers the status of a party, when it is involuntary, unpleasant, and tension-laden, and when the alien/minority group members are of lower status, prejudices are bolstered (Jaspars and Hewstone 1982: 129).

When applied to a foreign language teaching/learning environment where cultural distance exists between faculty and students, the above mentioned conditions prove to be valid and relevant.

There is no argument about the limiting effect of cultural distance on effective communication. However, the evidence also suggests that there exist both negative and positive correlations between cultural variables and foreign language teaching/ learning, In other words, cultural distance may well be restric-tive in foreign language learning; but channeled into the right direction, it could enhance the knowledge of foundations of the target language.

Before reaching such a conclusion, however, one must answer some relevant questions: What is cultural distance and how it is measured? What are its determinants? To what degree does cultural distance inhibit or improve communication in the target language? On a more practical level: Does the cultural distance between foreign-born language instructors and students inhibit or enhance the foreign language teaching/learning process? We can also apply the answers to these questions to U.S. personnel working overseas. Namely, how does the cultural distance between them and the members of the host nation influence effective communication and thus accomplishment of the goals?

Teaching foreign languages for communicative purposes is necessary but not sufficient given the fact that language is only one of the components of the larger entity called culture. Different cultures have different *Weltanschauungs*, frames of reference, and expectations.

According to Hall (1966):

> People from different cultures not only speak different languages, they inhabit different sensory worlds. Selective screen-ing of sensory data admits some things while filtering out others. This means that experience as it is perceived through one set of culturally patterned sensory screens is quite different from experience perceived through another.

If the same sensory data is applied to both native and target languages, one might commit serious errors as exemplified by literal translations. Therefore, the cultural setting in which foreign language textbooks are written is of extreme importance.

In an older but respectable textbook of Turkish the husband asks his wife to bring back from the grocery store "three kilos of ice, two packs of playing cards, tooth paste, and film for the camera" (McQuown II: 598). The fact is, however, that except for tooth paste, no regular grocery store does or is allowed to carry the rest. In 1945, probably most of the Turkish grocery stores did not have tooth paste either.

In our own DLI Basic Course Textbook for Turkish, Osman asks his friend Hasan: "There is a swimming pool to the left of your house. Is it yours?" Hasan replies: "No, it is not ours. Ours is to the right of the house" (DLI IV:14).

These are just two of the improbable and non-authentic situations which might occur if the same standards are applied to foreign cultures as to domestic ones.

CULTURAL RELATIVITY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTIC DETERMINISM

Cultural relativity of languages and all other expressive behavior is an old problem dealt with by social scientists and linguists. Starting with Darwin (1872) a twofold question was posed: Are there significant cross-cultural differences in the ways emotional states are displayed? If so, what are these differences?

Indeed, the real meaning of the things a speaker says cannot fully be understood unless one knows something about the social norms of the community in which that speaker lives or has lived a long time. The speakers' social identities and situations are not just a backdrop; rather they have a more immediate and direct effect on the messages delivered. (Irvine 1982: 31-41).

Many linguists, including Whorf (1956) have theorized that the world view of a speech community is reflected in the linguistic pattern it uses. They believe that the way reality is categorized in the underlying patterns of a language is an indication how speakers of that language view the world. At the same time, how they view the world depends on the language system they have. In the literature many examples are cited tying language with a world view: Eskimos and their snow; Americans and automobiles; Troibrand islanders and yams, etc.

Communication constitutes the core of culture and indeed of life itself. According to Whorf, language is more than a medium for expressing thought. It is a major element in the formation of thought. Hall (1966:2) uses the analogy of a computer to illustrate this point: Man's very perception of the world is programmed by the language he speaks, just as a computer is programmed. Like the computer, man's mind will register and structure external reality only in accordance with the program. Since two languages often program the same class of events differently, no belief or philosophical system should be considered apart from language.

In short, members of different language communities see and think of the world in different ways; each language implies a particular world view. From this line of thought, two principles were developed: 1) The principle of linguistic determinism, i.e., language determines thought; 2) The principle of linguistic relativity, i.e.,. every language embodies a definite world view (Hoermann 1971:310). The thesis of linguistic determinism leads to the realization that language is not simply an instrument we control; it also controls us.

TEACHING CULTURE, CULTURAL DISTANCE AND SUBJECTIVE CULTURE

Even though one cannot communicate effectively without a knowledge of the foreign culture, we do not necessarily teach culture when we teach language. Knowledge of the linguistic structure alone does not carry with it any special insight into any political, social, economic or religious system. While a convenient place to begin learning about the target culture is in our foreign language classes, culture must be taught systematically in addition to purely linguistic concerns. Whatever can be taught in the target language should be taught in the target language. Only when this is not realistic should culture classes be conducted in English (Seelye 1982:6).

In a typical foreign language teaching/learning institution, however, teaching the target language per se has priority, and the teaching of culture is neglected. Apart from financial, manpower and time constraints, one reason for this is the enormous sphere that culture encompasses. Indeed, culture is seen in almost everything people learn to do, which includes the social order to which they are attached. According to one definition, culture is "the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought characteristic of a community or population (American Heritage)."

In short, teaching culture is an enormous task, and a focal point is desperately needed. Besieged by an endless procession of cultural studies from sociology, anthropology, political science, economics, social psychology, art, music and literature, the language teacher must choose and convey the relevant information within the above mentioned constraints. According to Nostrand (1966) language teachers should focus on just two basic purposes in teaching about a foreign way of life: cross-cultural communication and understanding.

The fact that the same concepts can be interpreted differently by members of different cultures and subcultures is called "subjective culture", "subjective lexicon", "cognitive map" or "world view" by social scientists. Basically, they refer to the phenomenon where different cultural groups extract and retain subjective meanings and images from past experiences.

When we learn the language of a cultural group we learn part of its subjective culture, but there is more to it. People can be experts in the language of a cultural group, yet may have a limited understanding of its subjective culture.

We know that different language behaviors are exhibited by different cultures and that real bilinguals can switch from one set of language behaviors into another without experiencing any difficulty. Similarly, intercultural interaction can be quite easy for those who know the subjective culture of the other cultural group. However, generally, this is not the case and most people, including foreign language teachers and students, encounter difficulty in intercultural contacts. Along the same line, the greater the similarity between two cultures, the easier becomes the contact. When the cultures are very different, contact is always difficult but an intermediate level between the extreme levels can probably be reached, depending on the familiarity of parties with the respective subjective cultures. Obviously, this phenomenon has very important implications in all aspects of international relations.

MEASURING CULTURAL DISTANCE

Measuring cultural distance is a formidable task indeed. It is determined by numerous variables, many of them impossible to quantify. It requires an interdisciplinary endeavor involving anthropology, sociology, psychology, linguistics, political science and communication research. Moreover, by eliminating the irrelevant variables and choosing the relevant ones, the researcher injects a considerable degree of subjectivity into the problem.

Cultural distance is obtained by measuring the similarities and/ or differences between the culturally shared subjective meanings of two or more groups. The groups to be compared, however, must share certain characteristics and be "similar enough' Otherwise we encounter a focus problem and compare "apples with oranges".

As indicated above, selecting the relevant characteristics for the measurement of cultural distance is a complicated task. Szalay and Maday (1973: 151-173) suggest a three-step process to achieve this objective. First, members of each cultural sample are asked to list 25 important activities or domains of life. These may involve family, religion, love, money, work etc. Thus, a ranked list of high priority domains for each sample is developed. Second, ideas are elicited through free association for each of these domains. This provides a priority list of subjects or themes representative of high-priority domains. Third, a master list is developed by taking equal numbers of the high priority domains and their top themes from each culture. From that list, distances between dominant themes are measured.

Szalay et al. have measured the cultural similarities and distances among Black, White and Hispanic American groups in the Washington, D.C. area (Szalay et al. 1976). They found that the cultural distance between Blacks and Whites was relatively narrow, while Hispanic Americans' values and priorities were very distant from both Black and White Americans. They also divided each group into subgroups according to their income levels (low-middle-high). Their data show that the high-income groups in every culture are most similar and the low-income groups the least so.

Two other studies measured cultural distances among Puerto Ricans, Slovenians, South Koreans and Americans of comparable occupation, age, sex and education (Szalay and Bryson 1975; Szalay et al. 1971). When, for example, Korean and American occupational subsamples tested in their native countries are compared, students appear to be relatively close, while agriculturalists are the farthest apart. This suggests that education reduces cultural distance.

As all other social variables, cultural distance is a dynamic phenomenon and changes in time. But what is the direction of this change? Is there a divergence or a convergence between different cultures, ideologies, social groups and classes, ethnic racial groups, male and female and the young and the old? There are forces working on either side. Increased communication and education provide for convergence between different cultures.

On the other hand, deteriorating distribution of income among nations and groups increases cultural distance and levels of prejudice, ethnocentrism and parochialism. To counterbalance this latter trend, it is most important to include cultural and international studies in the regular foreign language curriculum.

CULTURE SHOCK

Foreigners in a different cultural setting experience cross-cultural misunderstanding and culture shock. The term "culture shock" was initially introduced by Oberg (1960:177-182) and referred to the distress experienced by the foreigner as a result of losing all the familiar signs and symbols of interaction.

The foreigner has to make an effort to adapt psychologically to the new culture. This, in turn, causes stress. Due to lack of linguistic skills, different appearance and interaction patterns, a foreigner cannot easily blend into the crowd. He/she might be rejected by and/or reject members of the new culture. Even if rejection does not occur, a mere perception of rejection is adequate for negative reaction. This often results from cultural distance and lack of foreign language comprehension.

Educated foreigners such as faculty members at the Defense Language Institute generally belonged to a higher social class in their native countries and are more class-conscious due to the more rigid class hierarchy which prevailed there. Therefore, they may experience a sense of loss and feelings of deprivation in regard to status, profession, possessions and friends in the new environment. Furthermore, values, role expectations and feelings about in- and out-groups may differ in varying degrees. As a result, the foreigner may experience confusion, surprise, anxiety, even disgust and indignation. Finally, a feeling of impotence may arise from inability to cope adequately with the new environment.

Indeed aliens living in a foreign country usually undergo a classic case of culture shock which results from anxieties created by a new cultural environment. Adults living overseas for the first time in their lives cannot hope to be free from such anxieties (Larson and Smalley 1972:39). Culture shock is sometimes aggravated by anxiety resulting from the very knowledge that aliens overseas are likely to suffer from it. It can produce its own vicious circle: fear breeds fear. Maturity and experience in one's own culture do not necessarily protect the foreigner from culture shock. People who appear to handle problems very well at home may nevertheless find themselves unable to cope with the situations in a new community.

Aliens generally apply well-proven solutions from their own cultures to the new problems - and some are solved effectively. New ways of meeting some new problems are learned. Other problems, however, are not solved so easily, and this may cause culture stress. While culture shock may pass eventually, culture stress may continue for years.

My personal experience leads me to believe that study of a foreign language creates stress. Learners may worry about their lack of motivation or about their scores on aptitude tests. Students sometimes allow their attention to be distracted by minor elements in the school environment that may appear inadequate. Usually they live quite far from the country where the target language is spoken; culture may not be adequately taught. These facts have adverse effects on student motivation. Language study can be tiresome, boring and frustrating.

As all social phenomena, culture shock is subject to a change and adjustment process. Smalley (1963:51) proposed four stages or phases of culture shock: 1) Fascination with the new culture, 2) Hostility and frustration, 3) Improvement and adjustment, and 4) Biculturalism.

Two related inhibitors of cross-cultural communication are stereotyping and ethnocentrism. Levine and Campbell (1972:167) point out that "the greater the real differences between groups on any particular custom, appearance, item of material culture, the more likely that culture trait is to appear in the stereotyped imagery each group has of the other".

Ethnocentrism, on the other hand, may be described as a syndrome involving at least three basic factors: integration and loyalty among ingroup members, hostile relations between ingroup and outgroup members, and positive self-regard among ingroup members in contrast to derogatory stereotyping of outgroup characteristics (Seelye 1982:82).

When applied to a foreign language teaching environment, most of the above mentioned criteria seem to be relevant in different degrees. Many instructors who are native speakers may suffer from symptoms of culture shock and stress; they and/or their students may have or develop prejudices, stereotypes and strong senses of ethnocentrism in all cross-cultural com-munication.

CAN SUBJECTIVE CULTURE BE LEARNED?

The answer to this question is affirmative. Other than formal training about foreign cultures, individuals can adjust to different cultures with relative ease or difficulty depending on their cultural distance. For example, Americans find that they have to stand much closer to an Arab during interaction in the Middle East than they would with fellow Americans at home. Japanese learn to have more eye contact with Westerners during conversation than is customary in their own culture. An Englishman in Japan learns how to push and shove his way in the subway, but resume his normal queuing practice after returning home (Furnham and Bochner 1982:164).

Researchers dealing with comparative studies and everyone else engaged in cross-cultural communication need to have a skill called "empathy" which in layman's terms can be defined as "putting yourself in someone else's shoes". This, however, is a quite difficult proposition given our different backgrounds, cultural distances, prejudices and linguistic and cultural barriers. In different cultures different notions exist concerning time, space and kinship relations, among others. It is a well-known fact that certain cultures rank time lower in overall importance than Northern Americans and Western Europeans. In Latin America, for example, one hears the expression, "our time or your time?" "Hora americana, hora mejicana?, (Hall 1959:28). When one asks a Turkish villager how far a certain destination is, the answer might be "five cigarettes smoking distance".

Americans and Arabs, for example, live in different sensory worlds much of the time and do not use the same senses to establish distances maintained during conversations. Hall (1966:2,3) points out that Arabs make more use of touch and smell than Americans. They not only speak different languages, but inhabit different sensory worlds. They have different understandings of the concept of "privacy" [1]:

> Arabs avoid partitions in their homes because they do not like to be alone... Arabs are deeply involved with each other. Their personalities are intermingled and take nourishment from each other like the roots and soil. If one is not with people and actively involved in some way, one is deprived of life. An old Arab saying reflects this value: "Paradise without people should not be entered because it is Hell". Therefore, Arabs in the United States often feel socially and sensorily deprived and long to be back where there is human warmth and contact (Hall 1966:148).

In cross-cultural communication one should keep in mind that implicit messages also exist along with explicit ones. Freud, for example, heavily relied on the communicative significance of man's acts rather than his words and assumed that words hid much more than they revealed. Culture, too, exists on two levels: overt or explicit culture, which is visible and easily described, and covert or implicit culture, which is not visible and presents difficulties even to the trained observer. Law, for example, belongs to explicit culture, because people can talk about and be specific about it. Implicit culture, such as feelings about success, is what they take for granted or what exists on the fringes of awareness.

TRADITIONAL AND MODERN CULTURES

Evidence suggests that the subjective culture of modern man is different than the subjective culture of traditional man. As indicated earlier, the major determinant of the subjective culture of modern man is education. The amount of education received by an individual is the best predictor of whether or not he/she will adapt to different cultural environments. The ideal modern man is apparently open to new experiences, relatively independent of parental authority, and concerned with time and planning and willing to defer gratification; he feels that man can be the master over nature and that he controls the reinforcements he receives from his environment. He believes in determinism and science, has a wide, cosmopolitan perspective, and uses broad ingroups. He competes with standards of excellence and is optimistic about controlling his environment.

The ideal traditional man, on the other hand, has narrow ingroups, looks at the world with suspicion, believes that one obtains a share of it by chance or perhaps by pleasing the gods. He identifies with his parents and receives direction from them. He feels at the mercy of obscure environmental forces and is prone to mysticism. He sees interpersonal relations as an end, rarely as means to an end. He does not believe that he can control his environment but rather sees himself under the influence of external, mystical powers (Triandis 1972;353).

As Triandis and Vasiliou point out with the Greek case, a strong ingroup-outgroup contrast can be detected in most traditional and transitional cultures. Triandis and Vassiliou 1972:299). Reality in those cultures is impregnated with social considerations, whereas in America it is focused on the individual. Members of traditional and transitional cultures define their universe in terms of the triumphs of the ingroup over the outgroup, and their social behaviors are strongly dependent upon whether other people are members of their ingroup. Relations with authority figures and conflicts are also conditioned by this ingroup-outgroup contrast.

At the societal level, Parsons (1951) developed five pairs of pattern variables, the first pattern characterizing traditional societies: 1. Affectivity-Affective neutrality, 2. Collectivity-orientation-Self-orientation, 3.Particularism-Universalism, 4. Ascription-Achievement, 5. Diffuseness-Specificity.

By "ascription" sociologists mean the assignment of rank or role on the basis of birth, age, or sex rather than achievement. Particularism refers to an emphasis on kinship and local relations, whereas universalism denotes the prevalence of generally applicable norms, such as laws and principles. Thus, ascription is particularistic and ranking by achievement is universalistic (Merkl 1977:4).

Because modernization causes the breakup of traditional societies, it puts people in stressful social environments that may result in maladjustments. This transformation from *Gemeinschaft* (community) to *Gesellschaft* (society) is believed to be one-directional and irreversible.

In real life, however, traditional and modern societies are not necessarily the anti-theses of one another. Both contain elements of each other, and there are many transitional societies which cannot be so easily categorized. When we speak of traditional cultures, we lump together a vast variety of systems, some elaborate and sophisticated, and others primitive tribal cultures with rather simple social structures and hardly any political structures. Thus, cultural distance between modern and traditional individuals and groups is constantly changing and difficult to measure.

CONCLUSION

Most conflicts occur because of lack of communication and misunderstandings between two cultures. At the same time there is a reciprocal cause-and-effect or chicken-and-egg relationship between lack of effective communication and cultural distance.

As a general rule, cultural distance in cross-cultural communication brings along such inhibitors as prejudice, stereotyping, ethnocentrism, cultural shock and stress. As a communicative enterprise, foreign language teaching also gets its share of adverse impacts from cultural distance. This occurs especially when teaching of culture is neglected and foreign languages are taught more or less independently from their cultural settings.

Cultural distance, the very inhibitor of the foreign language teaching/learning process can contribute a lot of insight to the latter if channeled in the right direction. Cultural distance is a strong social force; the very nature of foreign languages enables us to take advantage of this force by teaching culture. This tool, of course, may provide us with better communicative skills, understanding and ultimately peace with foreign cultures and their people. This is what foreign language teaching/learning is -or should be- all about.

FOOTNOTES

[1] I have heard that in the Russian language there is no single word equivalent for "privacy", probably because they do not have much of it. The same can be said about the Turkish language and social life.

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COMMUNICATING WITH MORE THAN WORDS

Yildiray Erdener

ABSTRACT *Drawing upon information collected in a survey conducted among students at the Defense Language Institute, as well as upon observations made by the author over a ten year period in the United States, this paper investigates the role of gestures in human communication.*

Students were asked to explain the meaning of four gestures commonly used in Turkey. Using their responses as examples, I demonstrated the importance of teaching nonverbal as well as verbal communication skills in language classes.

Students of linguistics have been recording, analyzing and comparing the verbal aspects of various human languages since the nineteenth century. The nonverbal aspects, on the other hand, were largely ignored primarily because they could not be as easily recorded.

Scholars and language students, however, are aware of the fact that learning to "speak" a given language involves more than acquiring verbal ability in that language. In other words, if one wants to communicate effectively in a foreign language, one should learn not only the grammar but also all of the identifiable noises (paralanguage), body movements (kinesics), and cultural uses of space (proxemics) which accompany the activity of speaking. Communication, as a multichannelled system (Birdwhistell 1964:380), cannot rely on any one channel to convey complete meaning.

The verbal message then is not the only reliable channel people depend on. Verbal competence, kinesics, paralanguage and proxemics are seen as interdependent parts of the whole with a change in the flow or intensity in any one of these channels effecting the content of the entire message. "...the villagers' interpretation of communication depends on something more than their discursive content ..." (Adams 1964:272).

Some scholars even maintain that in face-to-face communication nonverbal information is more important than verbal messages. "...we would go so far as to claim that gestural information is even more important than verbal..." (Morris, Collett, Marsh and O'Shaughnessy 1980:xi).

It is debatable whether "gestural information is more important than verbal" but it seems obvious that a nonverbal clue can sometimes convey the meaning of a message more forcefully than the spoken word. Those who are not familiar with the nonverbal behavior of a particular culture cannot correctly interpret those crucial silent messages and, as a result, the communication with them is incomplete and insufficient.

Teaching or learning a complete system of communication means focusing on more than just verbal abilities. Underestimating the importance of nonverbal cues could cause grave problems for students living in a foreign culture. In some European countries, for example, one could be prosecuted for a gestural mistake.

> Some gestural activities can still bring police prosecution in certain countries. We encountered this in Germany and in Malta... In Malta we were warned not to make the forearm jerk in the streets when interviewing informants. In England certain obscene gestures, such as the palmback V-sign might easily be construed as "insulting behaviour" in the legal sense if directed offensively at police ...(Morris, et al. 1980:268).

In addition to the forearm jerk, mentioned above, there are other gestures which are considered obscene insults or hostile behavior in Turkey. In an effort to gather some information about nonverbal language acquisition among students at the Defense Language Institute, I distributed a questionnaire to twenty-two students asking them to explain four gestures

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[1] I also used my ten years of observations in American society.

commonly used in Turkey.[1] The following is the result of the survey which I conducted on July 10-11, 1986.

The first gesture which I asked the students to comment on was the forearm jerk which is one of the most obscene insults in Turkey. It is performed in the following way: while the fist of the right hand is clenched, the arm is bent at the elbow with the help of the left hand which slaps down the right upper-arm as it is being raised. The described gesture is a symbol of a phallic threat which is primarily anal. The forearm jerk is used to express a hostile feeling in an obscene way and translates as 'up yours,' 'get lost,' 'scram,' etc. Ninety percent of the students I interviewed interpreted the forearm gesture correctly.

The second hand movement I asked the students about was the fig-sign: the hand is closed and the tip of the thumb can be seen between the first and the second fingers. In Turkey the "fig" represents the vagina with the thumb indicating the penis inserted into it. It carries messages such as 'get lost,' 'take this,' 'this is all you'll get,' or 'you are less than a man.' Sixty percent of the students said that they had no idea what the gesture meant, twenty two percent interpreted the fig-sign as a playful action meaning 'I have your nose in my hand,' and only eighteen percent defined the gesture as a sexual insult.

This lacuna in cross cultural communication reminded me of a similar miscommunication which I experienced some years ago. While studying at the Goethe Institute in Germany I was shocked to see my professor pointing to the blackboard with his hand in the fig position. Obviously he was unaware of what the gesture connoted to his Turkish students.

The next gesture I asked the students to interpret was the "ring": the thumb and forefinger form a circle and the other three fingers are extended. All but one student understood the ring as an O.K. sign, i.e. 'approval of an action,' 'everything is going well,' 'real good,' 'super.' On the contrary, the ring in Turkey means 'you are a homosexual,' or 'you have a large orifice.' It is thought to have become an obscene insult because the circular shape represents a body orifice, usually the anus. One can imagine the embarrassment of an American officer who tries to tell his Turkish colleague that everything in a particular military maneuver is going well by performing the ring sign.

Finally, I questioned the students as to what kind of message the head toss would convey to them. The head is tossed upwards and backwards in a short jerk while the eyebrows are raised. This action is accompanied by a 'tschk' sound which is produced by the tongue. Thirty six percent of the students said that they did not know what the gesture meant. The remaining students tried to come up with meanings such as 'come here,' 'hello,' 'what is going on?' 'what do you want?' and 'who are you kidding?' None of them, however, came close to interpreting the meaning of the gesture in Turkey, where the head toss is a common way of saying 'no.' On occasion the "tschk" sound is produced by the tongue without the head movement to express negation.

In this paper I purposely identified three obscene gestures in order to dramatically demonstrate the importance of the nonverbal aspects of communication.[2] Needless to say, there are hundreds of other gestures which are used in people's daily communication. Of the four gestures I discussed, only one, the forearm jerk, was well known to American students.. Some of them told me that they first learned this gesture from cab drivers in New York. Apparently over time, as people from Europe,Asia and Africa came to the New World they introduced into their new language (English) some of the nonverbal gestures of their home cultures. The remaining three gestures seemed to be unknown in American culture, or to have meanings different from those in Turkey. The ring sign, for example, exists in American and Turkish cultures but it has entirely different meanings in each country. Thus in each culture gestures reflect culture specific ideas. Through paralanguage, kinesics, and proxemics we send cultural messages as a part of nonverbal communication. To increase communication through cultural awareness in a given target language we therefore should educate our students in nonverbal as well as verbal languages.

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[2] More information about these gestures can be found in Morris, et al. *Gestures.*

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GOALS AND OBJECTIVES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Lidia Woytak

ABSTRACT *The purpose of this article is to identify the role of goals and objectives in proficiency-oriented foreign language teaching. An overview of educational goals and objectives is presented and the role of goals and objectives in audio-lingual language learning is described. Next, the function of goals and objectives in proficiency-oriented instruction is discussed. Further, the possibility of deriving goal statements from positive elements of the proficiency level descriptions is pointed out. A procedure for a goal design is outlined. Subsequently, the main goal of the proficiency-oriented learning is defined and skill area goal statements for speaking, listening, reading and writing as well as cultural and affective goal statements are listed. Conclusion is made that proficiency level descriptions can be used as a tool in designing a proficiency-oriented curriculum.*

INTRODUCTION

Renewed interest in various modes of communicative foreign language teaching has emerged in recent years. Teachers at both secondary and post-secondary levels have responded positively to the idea of implementing such approaches as the Total Physical Response, the Natural Approach, functional learning and learning for proficiency. Teachers however, have discovered that they need specific implementation guidelines and that the guidelines of the traditional program of instruction are not applicable to the communicative models. Teachers may now determine how to lead their students to communicative proficiency in a foreign language and what skills learners have to demonstrate throughout the course and upon its completion. (Higgs 1984)

Although there have been a number of articles, books and conference presentations addressing communicative methods, a thorough guidance on their implementation is still to come. The purpose of this article is to fill this gap in part and thus to mark the first steps leading to the implementation of a functional language learning program. How does one know whether a learner is able to function in a foreign language? What is the learner expected to demonstrate? What constitutes acceptable performance? To answer these questions, one needs to turn to goals.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES IN EDUCATION

Goals are a crucial element in foreign language design and instruction. Goals are broad statements of the proposed direction of the educational process. They: (1) state what students are to learn to do, and (2) describe the desired changes in personal development. These two goals are often referred to as cognitive and affective. Objectives, on the other hand, are more specific than goals. According to Robert M. Gagné, "...objectives always refer to the learner's performance to be attained following learning..." (Gagné 1985) Ideally, reaching a set of objectives would automatically lead to the attainment of a goal.

Goals and objectives function as organizers during developmental and instructional processes, quality control indicators and - finally - as a bridge between the learner, the teacher and the administrator. The teacher and the learner may use objectives to attain a goal in teaching and learning respectively. The administrator may use the objectives to check whether the instructional system is working and whether it is conducive to learning.

During the developmental process, goals and objectives help the program planner to identify the purpose, the scope and the content of the selected materials. Subsequently, during the instruction, they are used to instill awareness in teachers and learners as to what they have to do and why they are doing it. Learners who are aware of course goals and objectives develop a stronger desire to learn and their attitude towards the language they study is more positive. (Woytak 1984, Harper 1975:327)

Goals and objectives are also an important tool in determining educational accountability. The acceptance of these concepts at an institutional level is the first step towards accountability. (Steiner 1975, Bidwell 1975:117) They serve as the basis for evaluation of the program; did the school do its duty? Were the students given the opportunity to perform at the expected level? Cost-effectiveness is an important part of educational accountability. The majority of studies have indicated that the cost-effectiveness ratio was greater for instruction based on goals and objectives than with traditional instruction. (Young 1978:5606-5607)

Although the importance of goals and objectives in foreign language instruction is acknowledged by the proponents of audio-lingual and communicative approaches, they are not interpreted identically. Although both methods call for performance on the part of learner or - in other words - on observing learner doing something, they evoke different types of performance. The differences between audio-lingual and communicative goals and objectives stem from different methodological assumptions.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES IN AUDIO - LINGUAL LEARNING

Typical goals of the audio-lingual and - especially - structural approaches traditionally emphasized the ability to know the language and to produce complete sentences. The real goals of these approaches have been based on the assumption that "learning a foreign language equals learning that language's structure, along with a generous amount of vocabulary, all carefully sequenced and spooned out in judicious doses." (Heilenmen and Kaplan 1985:59) Thematically, the sentences have been usually grouped around a selected grammatical feature such as "Subjunctive," or "Genitive Singular." Robert J. Kibler, Larry L. Barker and David T. Miles in the book *Objectives for Instruction* have listed examples of instructional objectives aiming at structural correctness:

> Given a set of kernel sentences with an adjective in the predicate, the student will identify the predicate and the adjective.
>
> Given incomplete sentences which include a choice of pronouns in different cases, the student will select the pronoun in the correct form to complete the sentence. (Kibler, Barker and Miles 1970:172.)

Focus on elicitation of isolated sentences have led naturally to emphasis on accuracy. Unfortunately, striving for accuracy has caused the following side-effects: (1) training inflexibility through too close a reference to a descriptive model; (2) neglecting adaptability and the ability to improvise; (3) domination of written forms over spoken forms. (Brumfit 1983:187)

COMMUNICATIVE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Amongst various communicative approaches, it was the learning for proficiency which has revived the concepts of goals and objectives. This mode of language learning has entailed proficiency testing based on scales developed originally by the Foreign Service Institute in the 1950's and, subsequently, refined in 1980's by academic and government circles, namely, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the Educational Testing Service and the Interagency Language Roundtable. (Liskin-Gasparro 1984:476)

Similarly to objectives, proficiency scales or levels have referred to the outcome of instruction, and not to the instructional process. The levels have been evaluative in nature and have evolved to distinguish among people, specifically to identify the degree of their foreign language abilities. (Heilenmen and Kaplan, 1985:57-58) Each level has contained positive and negative descriptive elements. (ILR Proficiency Level Guidelines 1983) Positive elements have identified tasks required at a given level of performance, i.e., *giving directions, asking for information,* or *making travel arrangements.* Negative elements, on the other hand, have identified typical learner deficiencies expected at a particular level, i.e., *fractured syntax, faulty pronunciation* or *limited vocabulary.* Typical positive and negative elements for Level 1 in Speaking have been presented below:

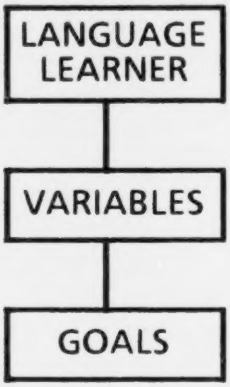
Positive
can arrange accommodations
express courtesy
exchange greetings
introduce self
elicit and provide biographical information
give information about business hours
explain office matters
state what actions will be taken

Negative
poor pronunciation, stress and vocabulary
limited vocabulary
structural errors

It has been very difficult to assess the extent of learners' *limited vocabulary, fractured syntax* or *structural errors.* If, however, the negative elements of proficiency guidelines were replaced by measurable criteria, then it would be possible to determine whether a learner reached a certain level or not. Such structure of proficiency levels would resemble the form of goals or summative objectives. (Gagné 1985)

DESIGNING GOALS

John Munby in his book *Communicative Syllabus Design* recommends that in order to establish valid goals, it is necessary to identify learners and their needs. (Munby 1978:28-29) In his theoretical framework, he presents the following sequence:



Thus, as a first step, the designer identifies the group of learners whose needs she wished to meet - the target group. A target population description is a careful examination of the characteristics (abilities, education, interests, and so forth) of those for whom instruction is intended. (Mager 1972:8-9) Subsequently, the designer defines what level the learners should attain and thus establishes what the learners need to do with a foreign language. (Van Ek 1975:4) A need is identified when a discrepancy is found between an ideal or acceptable state of affairs and the status quo. Following their identification, needs are verified and prioritized. (Munby 1978) Subsequently, they are translated into useful statements for the purpose of designing instructional systems. (Gagné and Briggs 1976:53) As a result of this translation educational goals begin to take shape. The goals of the proficiency based curriculum have to be predicted on actual observations of many learners as they actually attempt to use the languages they are learning.

Thus, the main goal of the proficiency-oriented instruction is to enable the majority of the learners to interact verbally at a desired proficiency level. A review of the ILR or ACTFL/ETS proficiency scales would lead to the following main goal:

> You will attain Level 2 in Listening and another skill area, either Speaking or Reading, with differing levels of skill develop-ment in other areas including culture and personal awareness.

Since the content of this goal is so general, it would be difficult to use it. However, this goal provides a basis for the development of detailed statements referring to skill areas, culture and personal development.

Skill area goal statements are based on the tasks (positive elements) contained in the skill level descriptions. For example, if our goal is level 2 is Listening, then we have to extract all items describing specific tasks from level 0+, 1, 1+ and 2. Presented below are skill area goal statements for Listening, Speaking and Reading Level 2.

Goal Statement - Listening

> While listening to conversations and narrations conducted in person or via the electronic media such as telephones, TV, radio, and tape recorders, you will identify main ideas, factual content and required (selected) pieces of information. The speech will be focused on all survival needs including minimum courtesy and travel requirements, meals, lodging, transportation, time, directions and orders, routine social demands, common personal and family news, everyday topics, well-known current events and routine office matters.

Goal Statement - Speaking

> You can handle routine social and work interactions. Specifically, you can exchange greetings, introduce yourself, elicit and provide biographical information. Also you can give all kinds of directions and make a variety of travel and accommodation arrangements.

Goal Statement- Reading

> You will read uncomplicated but authentic texts to identify general subject matter, get main ideas and locate significant items. You will also use contextual

and real world cues to understand the text. The texts will deal with such topics as news items describing frequently occurring events, biographical information, social notices, formulaic business letters, simple technical material, basic government structure, geographical information and descriptions of people, places and things.

Since every language is an integrated part of a specific culture, it would be beneficial to include a cultural goal statement. A sample is presented below:

Cultural Goal Statements

You will develop the cultural understandings, attitudes, and performance skills needed to function appropriately with a society of the target language and to communicate with the culture bearer. Specifically, you will demonstrate that:

1. People act the way they do because they are using options the society allows for satisfying basic physical and psychological needs.

2. Human actions are determined by age, sex, social class and place of residence.

3. People act conventionally in the most common and crisis situations in the target culture.

4. Culturally conditioned images are associated with even the most common target words and phrases. (Seelye 1981:38-41)

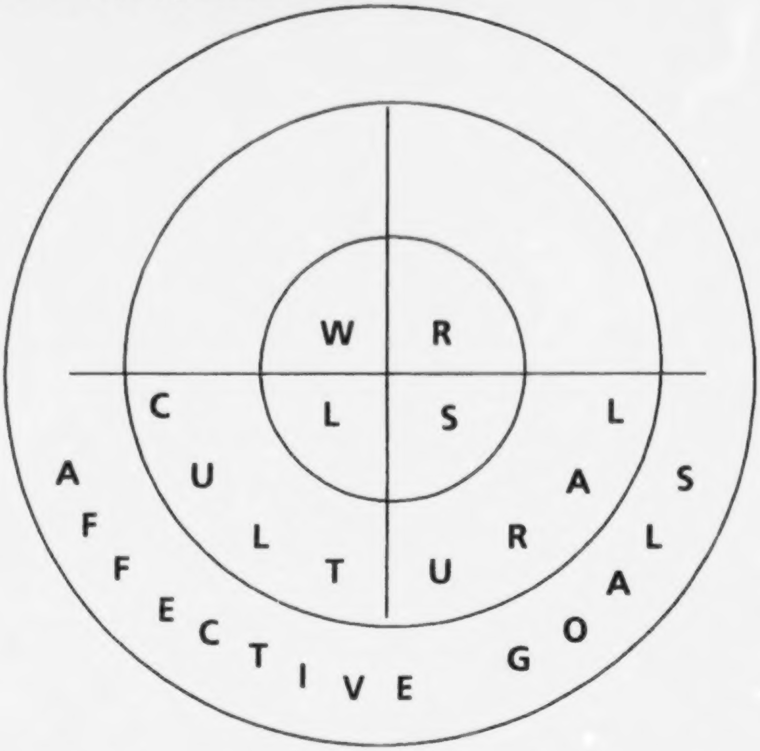
Such authors as A.D. de Groot and Florence Steiner have recommended that affective or personal goals be a part of a successful foreign language curriculum. Sample statements are provided below: (de Groot 1975:41 and Steiner 1975: 115-127)

Personal Goal Statements

1. You will discuss the impact of the course on you as an individual and on your career. You will find out more about yourself, your career plans, your new interests as well as your strengths and weaknesses.

2. You will develop a tolerant attitude towards people belonging to social, cultural and ethnic groups different from your own.

All these operational goals could be visualized as one combined goal as in the chart presented below:



Such a goal may serve as a basis for deriving objectives and the latter, in turn. may be used to design learning activities. Thus a link between intention (program goals) and reality (everyday foreign language instruction) could be established.

In summary, proficiency level descriptions can be changed into goal statements. Thus, they lend themselves not only to proficiency testing but they can also be used as a basis of a proficiency-oriented design. Such a design may be welcomed by the teacher who stands for effective, responsible innovation. It may also be welcomed by the learner because it is learner-oriented, because it centers on the development of functional skills and - finally - because it prepares for proficiency-oriented testing.

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FACULTY EXCHANGE

RESEARCH AT DLI--ALIVE, WELL, AND GROWING

John A. Lett, Jr.

Research--the word conjures up a multitude of images: Wizened old scholars peering through thick glasses at musty tomes in a far corner of the library, absent-minded professors playing endless intellectual games in ivy-covered buildings from which they never emerge except to wander about trying to find the car they left parked at home, or even crazed scientists in white coats scurrying around like the rats with which they are experimenting, glaring with beady eyes at all who come near. There are also more positive images, of course, such as medical researchers surrounded by beakers and test tubes as they search for a cure for cancer, or engineers designing and testing new concepts in the aerospace industry. To all of these images should be added one appropriate for educational institutions such as DLI: responsible and professional educators engaged in disciplined, systematic inquiry into how people learn and how they can be helped to do so most effectively and efficiently. That kind of research is alive and well at DLI, and this article presents an overview of where we are, where we have been, and where we hope to be as we attempt to derive more and more benefits from educational research activities in the field of foreign language education.

THE HISTORY OF RESEARCH AT DLI

Those who have been at DLI for some time have become familiar with the frequency and rapidity of change, and the history of research efforts at DLI illustrates it well. For one thing, DLI research and development activities have been housed and managed in many different organizational ways throughout DLI's history. For another thing, operational priorities have resulted in the term "research" being used at DLI mostly to refer to curriculum development efforts, such as the collection and archiving of cultural and linguistic data (especially in the less commonly taught languages) or the actual development of course and test materials (especially prototype versions), including various aspects of instructional technology and syllabus design. Additionally, DLI has had authorization to conduct only "applied research" or "studies," in accordance with the various levels of research effort as defined by Congress. Finally, given DLI's unique mission and characteristics, there has been little or no systematic or sustained recognition of the importance of research over the years, nor sufficient institutional incentives to encourage faculty or staff to conduct it, despite the notable research efforts of a number of individuals, some of whose work is still being cited by the academic community.

It was not until 1983 that sufficient interest and resources evolved at higher levels of authority to permit DLI to begin implementing the research component of the Academic Master Plan in the form of the establishment of a formal organization to plan and conduct research. This was accomplished in 1984 with the creation and filling of the first two Educational Researcher positions, whose duties include managing, directing,performing, and coordinating intra- and interagency research pertaining to the Defense Foreign Language Program. These positions were housed in the Evaluation Division, renamed the Evaluation and Research Division. In November 1986 the Directorate of Evaluation and Standardization (DES) was renamed the Directorate of Program Evaluation, Research, and Testing, and in January 1987 a separate Research Division was created within the Directorate.

CURRENT STATUS OF RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

Major Research Areas

DLI's mission to train Department of Defense (DoD) personnel as linguists and to serve as the DoD center for research in language education requires an ongoing effort to find better ways to teach languages and measure learning outcomes. These efforts may be grouped into three major areas: the learner, the instructional process, and the proficiency outcomes. Consideration of each area leads to certain kinds of research questions. For example, research about the learner attempts to answer such questions as these:

> What personal cognitive and affective attributes characterize successful and unsuccessful language learners? What student learning strategies are associated with success? Are any of these variables trainable? How can DLI and its user agencies best select, assign, and nurture students to maximum advantage?

Consideration of the instructional process leads to questions such as these:

> What methodologies suit DLI's needs best? Can instruction be tailored to individual learning styles? What is the role of the language to be learned in determining appropriate instructional methodologies? What is the optimal role of educational technology as an integrated partner in the teaching-learning process? What is the optimum configuration of classroom instruction (e.g., length and intensity of program, optimal use of classroom time vs. self-study time, optimal use of computer-based technology, etc.) for given course goals? How can educational managers and policy makers make intelligent decisions about these issues? How can DLI graduates be assisted in maintaining and enhancing their language skills after they have left DLI?

Research into the assessment of proficiency outcomes involves questions like these:

> How can DLI most validly, reliably, and efficiently assess learner outcomes? How can computer adaptive testing play a role? How can we determine the relative contributions of general language proficiency and job-specific language skills in preparing students for optimal job performance? How can skill change over time be predicted and managed?

Even when grouped as above, the number of questions to be addressed is formidable. To make it easier to see the interrelationships among the many variables that contribute to how well a given student will learn a foreign language, a "DLI Model of Foreign Language Learning" has been developed (Figure 1), based on adaptations of the well-known Carroll "Model of School Learning" (Carroll, 1963, 1974).

Projects Completed or Under Way

Since the creation of the present research function at DLI, many projects have been undertaken, some on an in-house basis and some in partnership with the Army Research Institute (ARI), the Training TechnologyAgency (TTA) of the U.S. Army

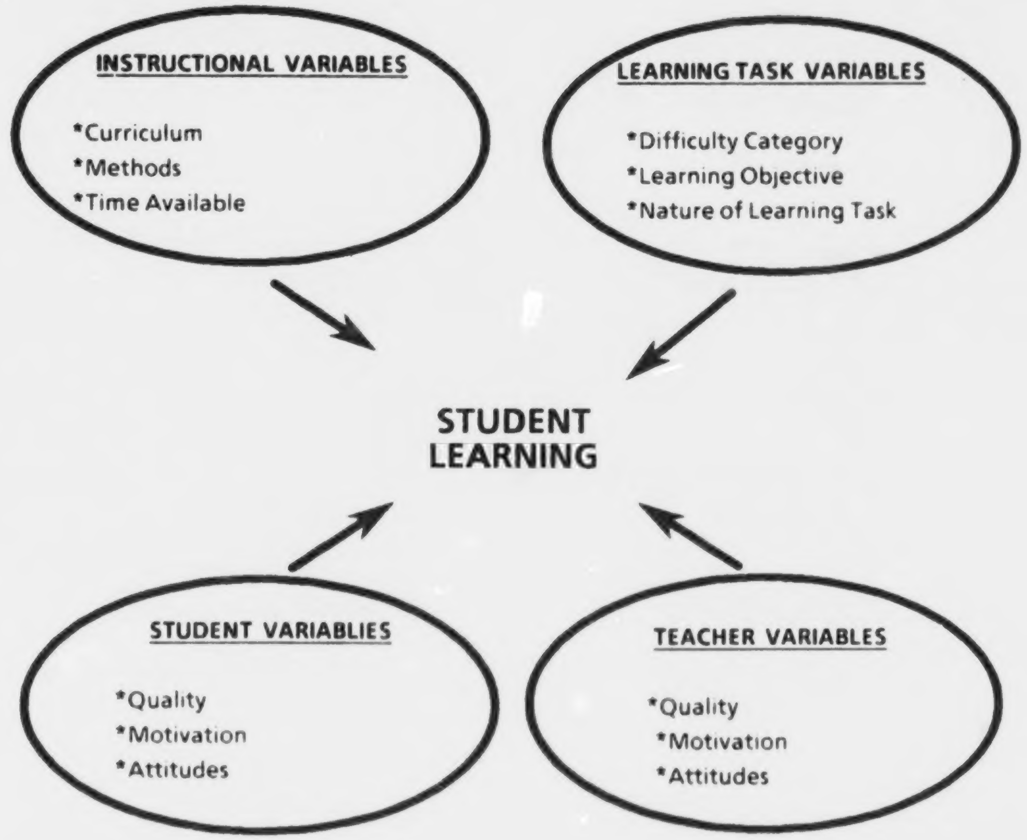
INSTRUCTIONAL VARIABLES
*Curriculum
*Methods
*Time Available
LEARNING TASK VARIABLES
*Difficulty Category
*Learning Objective
*Nature of Learning Task
STUDENT
LEARNING
STUDENT VARIABLIES
*Quality
*Motivation
*Attitudes
TEACHER VARIABLES
*Quality
*Motivation
*Attitudes

Figure 1.
1986 DLI MODEL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC), and other agencies and institutions, both governmental and non-governmental. Some of these projects are summarized below.

The Language Skill Change Project (LSCP). The LSCP is a four-year longitudinal study of Army linguists in the Korean, Russian, German, and Spanish languages who hold selected military occupational specialties (MOSs)in the military intelligence field. The study is being conducted jointly by DLI and ARI in coordination with the US Army Intelligence Center and School and a number of other units and agencies. The objectives of the LSCP are to describe and understand the nature and extent of language skill change after DLI language training, as well as to assess and describe the relationship between general language proficiency and job performance. The over

1,000 students in the study will be tracked and tested with alternate forms of the DLPT III from the time they enter DLI until they have finished their first tour of duty or have separated from the service. In addition, the wealth of data being gathered at the beginning of DLI language training will assist researchers in developing a profile of the successful language learner in the DLI context. The LSCP will shed light on many of the variables suggested in Figure 1, and will mark the first time that hard data will have been collected and analyzed on how these variables perform in the intensive military language training and utilization environment.

Educational Technology Needs Assessment (ETNA). In cooperation with DLI's Educational Technology (formerly New Systems) Division, a major review of the capabilities and roles of educational technology in foreign language education was recently begun under contract. When completed, this study will provide comprehensive information and decision models which will be useful in determining how best to employ computers, videodisc players, and other technological devices in both resident and non-resident language programs. In addition to the ETNA, the Research Division is also collaborating closely with the Educational Technology Division in coordinating with other DoD agencies on various educational technology projects.

Suggestopedia. In a study conducted jointly by DLI and ARI for the U.S. Army Soldier Support Center, the use of a teaching approach known as Suggestopedia was contrasted with DLI's approach. Suggestopedia, an approach widely used in Eastern Europe, involves the use of psychological relaxation techniques to maximize receptiveness to learning, and is claimed to produce very accelerated learning. In our carefully designed and controlled study, however, the students taught by the contracted suggestopedic instructors did not outperform the traditionally-taught students over the experimental period (Phase I of the Russian Basic Course),nor were there any striking differences in the end-of-course proficiency scores (see Table 1).

Thirteen-Week Extension of Basic Course. The Research Division assisted in setting up and evaluating the recently completed 60-week Korean study in which 18 Basic Course students were selected to remain at DLI for an additional 13 weeks of language training after graduation. Based on student opinion and on DLPT scores at 47 and 60 weeks, the additional 13 weeks of resident training did not appear to be effective in raising exit-DLI proficiency in Korean.

Table 1. Frequencies of End-of-Course Proficiency Scores Obtained by Students in Suggestopedia Study*

Language Skill	Group	1	1+	2	2+	3	TOTAL
		PROFICIENCY LEVELS					
LISTENING	Experimental	2	7	3	1		13
	Control	7	5	2			14
READING	Experimental	3	6	2	2		13
	Control	4	2	6	2		14
SPEAKING	Experimental	4	3	4	2		13
	Control	5	5	4			14

*Both Experimental and Control groups began with 20 students divided into sections of 10 students each.

Seven-hour Day. The Research Division also assisted in monitoring the recent study in which 29 Korean students received an additional hour of language laboratory work daily, consisting of listening activities that served as a bridge to their follow-on training at Goodfellow Air Force Base. Preliminary findings suggest that this was a worthwhile learning experience, although more because of the nature of their seventh-hour activities than because of having had an additional hour of class each day. These individuals will be tracked at Goodfellow to assess any long-term effects.

Testing Issues. Although the Testing Division is the proponent for all Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) testing issues, the Research Division has assisted in two areas, computer-adaptive testing (CAT) and job performance language tests (JPLT). Preliminary efforts have been undertaken to investigate the suitability of using computer-adaptive testing at DLI and throughout the DFLP. The major advantages of the CAT approach are that the test questions presented to a given student can be easily tailored to that student's general proficiency range, the item pool can be easily updated and augmented, test security is enhanced, and testing time is reduced. The CAT model may also be useful in the development of job performance language tests, which could be used in the field along with DLPTs and Soldiers' Qualifying Tests (SQTs) to assess the linguist's ability to perform the specific job he or she is trained to do. The US Army Intelligence Center and School at Fort Huachuca, Arizona, has the formal tasking to develop and deliver JPLTs in several major MOSs and languages; DLI has provided informal consultation and will continue to assist.

FUTURE RESEARCH ACTIVITIES AT DLI

As DLI moves through the 1980s and on into the '90s, and the need for more and better linguists continues to grow, so also will the need for more and better knowledge about how to educate those linguists. If we are to meet these challenges, more and better research-generated knowledge will have to be brought to bear on educational decisions and policies at DLI, and all staff and faculty members at DLI have important roles to play in the development and utilization of this knowledge. To meet these needs, three simultaneous approaches are planned: an expanded Research Division, more joint research activity with partners in government and academic settings,and expanded support for the research activities of DLI faculty members. Each is discussed briefly below.

Expanded Research Division

Current authorizations provide for a six-person Research Division consisting of a division chief, four other research professionals, and a division secretary, with the possible addition of one to two additional training research specialists to serve as TRADOC representatives in support of projects conducted jointly with the Training Technology Agency. With these personnel, more and better projects can be successfully conducted and reported within DLI, and more assistance can be provided to other staff units in joint efforts to apply research-generated knowledge.

Expanded Joint Activities

Despite the growth in the DLI Research Division, it must be recognized that no in-house research unit will ever be able to fully satisfy DLI's informational needs--there is too much that the profession at large still does not know about language learning. Fortunately, however, there is great potential for liaison with non-DLI language education researchers, particularly those in academia, who typically have considerable opportunity to develop theories and design projects, but whose access to research subjects is usually limited to small numbers of students in the first two years of the commonly taught languages. DLI offers such researchers the free world's largest living laboratory in which to conduct applied research into language learning, teaching, and testing. Thus, one of the major tasks of the new Research Division will be that of aggressively pursuing and developing this joint research potential.

Expanded Support for Faculty Research

DLI's more than 800 academic personnel constitute a huge reservoir of largely untapped potential. Like university faculty members, many of DLI's faculty and staff are qualified by education and experience to conduct useful classroom research; some have done so, or are doing so at this very moment, but have found it difficult to have their work recognized and implemented because of the lack of an appropriate coordinating staff office. Others are developing their ability to do research through degree programs such as the new MATFL program offered through the Monterey Institute of International Studies, although they may find it hard to imagine having time to do research as well as meet their obligations to "train the load. "However, with the advent of the team teaching concept and possibly a new personnel management system, there will be more time available for faculty research activities, as well as greater expectations and support for them.

In this regard, a major role of the Research Division will be to serve as a coordinating and support unit for faculty research. A Research Consulting Service will be set up to provide consultation to faculty on such matters as problem specification, sample size and sampling procedures,instrument development, data collection, statistical analyses, and other aspects of research design. In addition, by identifying and prioritizing areas in which research is needed and serving as an information exchange about projects recently completed or presently under way, the Research Division can assist both faculty and management in our joint pursuit of excellence in foreign language education.

CONCLUSION

The future of research at DLI is bright, but also challenging. The opportunity to make major contributions to the state of the art in language education is clearly at our fingertips--we have the students, the languages, the faculty...and the requirement. Having long been recognized as the place to go to learn a language quickly and well, DLI is now being recognized openly as a (if not *the*) DoD center for research in language teaching,learning, and testing. It is up to all of us to make sure we measure up to the task and continue to deserve that recognition.

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SOCIAL CONVENTIONS IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM (ACTFL CONFERENCE PRESENTATION)*

Foazi Y. El-Barouki, Marianne Armstrong,
Motoko Tabuse, and Alice K. Lee

INTRODUCTION

The significance of sociolinguistic/cultural features is apparent when language competence is measured by the extent to which a person can perform specific tasks in a foreign country. Even the most difficult features of a foreign language can be learned more easily when they are introduced and practiced in contexts which are relevant to the needs of the students.

This paper is divided into four sections: Arabic; German; Japanese; and Korean. In each of the sections, the authors discuss and illustrate sociolinguistic features, emphasizing in their curricula: "ways and means" of integrating language and culture, student reactions to the teaching of culture; and, finally, suggested sample classroom activities.

ARABIC

The Arabic language is highly influenced by Islamic culture. Even the most elementary and frequent social conventions have their roots in the Muslim religion. To function in an Arab country, Americans must gain understanding of many idioms and sayings of everyday life. The Arabic Basic Course consists of 47 weeks of Modern Standard Arabic followed by 16 weeks of one of 6 dialects: Syrian, Egyptian, Iraqi, Saudi, Yemeni or Maghribi (Moroccan). There are two new sets of texts: 1. "Arabic for Living," 2. "Gulf to the Ocean." These texts are not grammar-based, rather they are culturally and functionally oriented. Right from the beginning, we introduce cultural information in contextual passages and dialogues that are modeled by the teachers, interpreted into English and discussed in the classroom.

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*An extended version of this paper was presented at the ACTFL's 20th anniversary meeting in Dallas, TX, Nov. 21-23, 1986.

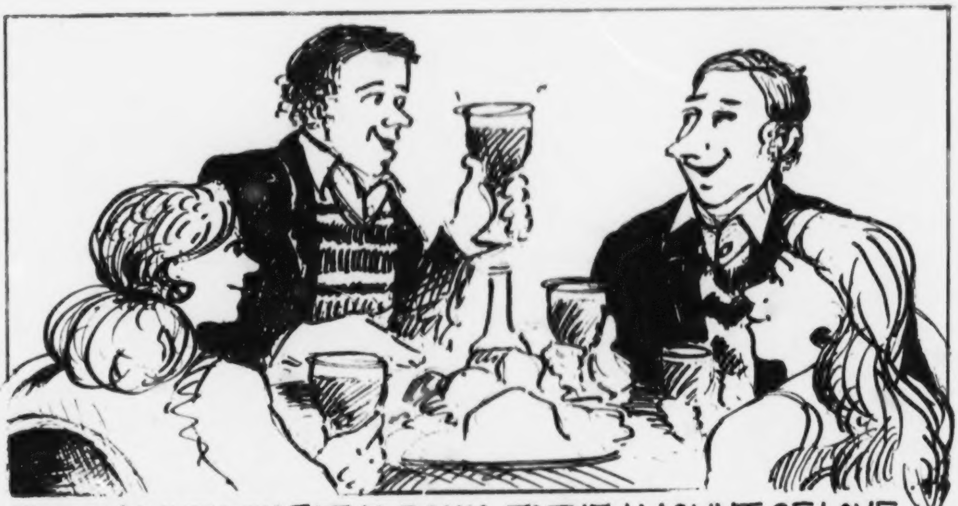
Classroom Activities

First, an Arabic name is randomly assigned to each student in order for him or her to practice difficult sounds as well as to get a feeling of the Arabic cultural setting. For example, Sergeant Smith becomes *Sayyid Nuri* and Miss Cates becomes *Aanisa Wedad*. The word *Sayyid* means "Mr." and *Aanisa* means "Miss." We teach students to differentiate in gender between males and females when using the second person, such as the pronoun "you", *anta* (masculine) and *anti* (feminine). When students address the teacher they use the word *Ustaz* (teacher).

Arabs often greet each other warmly and enthusiastically. Simple Arab greetings such as *Marhaba* (Hello) and *Ahlan wa sahlan* (Welcome), are taught during the first meeting with the students. More complicated greetings are taught in lessons one and two. Many of these, though difficult to pronounce, are of cultural value as they are related to Islam. For instance, when students greet in the morning, they learn to say *Sabahil-khair* (Good morning or Morning of goodness) . We teach students to respond *Sabahin-nur* (Morning of light). The word *nur* here means "the light of God." In religious terms, finding the light of God is finding the right way. At the same time, students learn the expression *Assalamu-Alykum* (Peace be upon you) which is an international greeting used by Arabs and Muslims at any time of day or night to mean "Hello." In lesson two, we also introduce the phrase *Kaifal-hal* (How are you?) and teach students to respond *Alhamdulil-lah* (Praise be to God).

We prepare our students for cultural differences among the Arab countries. Students benefit from our diverse faculty by learning, informally, various forms of greeting whenever they meet with different teachers. For example, students learn from an Egyptian professor the phrase *Izzayyak* (How is your outfit?). If the listener has not been exposed to this phrase, he or she would be confused thinking that there is something wrong with the way the listener dresses. Likewise, the students are exposed to other dialect forms expressed by other nationalities. The Iraqis say *Ishlounak* (How is your color?); the Moroccans say *Ishakhbarak* (How is your news?); and the Algerians say *Ishrak* (How do I see you?). But the Syrians, Lebanese, Jordanians and Palestinians say *Kief-halak* (How is your situation?) or *Kief-sahtak* (How is your health?). The differences between such forms become significant when students find themselves in the respective countries.

After a few weeks in the course, teachers start to engage students in cultural activities that include idiomatic expressions and proverbs representing the Arab cultural values of hospitality, generosity and polite eating habits. For example, the Arabic proverb says "The amount you eat is equal to the amount of love you have for us". We teach our students to respond to this manifestation of hospitality by being responsive to the host's invitation. If the guests have had enough to eat, or they are on a diet, they can politely abstain from eating by just sampling the food rather than offending the host if they refuse.



THE AMOUNT YOU EAT IS EQUAL TO THE AMOUNT OF LOVE YOU HAVE FOR US.

We often teach adjectives and other parts of speech through idioms and proverbs. For example, when students learn adjectives "long" and "short" certain Arabic linguistic phrases such as "His tongue is long" may be introduced to practice the word "long" and indicate the cultural meaning (talkative). As a follow-up activity other vocabulary is reviewed, as in the word "tongue." The proverbs "The man is known by his tongue" or "Your tongue is your guardian. If you protect it, it will protect you. But if you betray it, it will betray you." are then introduced. They mean that speech controls human behavior.

To prepare our students for proficiency, our teachers develop their own proficiency-based materials. These include communicative situations dealing with daily life themes, e.g., in a restaurant, a hotel or a post office. Teachers also play vocabulary games with the students. For example, a game called *Souk Ukaz* (The Market of Ukaz) tests students' progress in listening comprehension, spelling, pronunciation and translation. This game is traditionally used for poetry competitions in ancient Arabic literature . In the classroom, it requires that the students formulate new words, phrases or sentences that begin with the last consonant heard in a previous word mentioned by a classmate. Students take turns. Whoever lasts until the end without mistakes is the winner. Advanced students utilize their language abilities in acting on the stage.

Interactive Video

Our supplementation program, "Gulf to the Ocean," uses a laser disc and a Personal Computer (PC). Segments of the video are introduced to students having no previous preparation and no translation is given to the students. A passage based on four lessons is introduced--first, aurally, then visually. Student learning takes place by discovery.

In the structural- global method students are lead from the whole to the parts. The video program has the advantages that: 1. Students work at their own pace outside the classroom. 2. The program gives them an opportunity to build up a reservoir of knowledge. 3. They learn by themselves in a relaxed atmosphere. 4. They do not have to understand this complex situation in one class period.

Generally, when we implement this program, we use the program manual to present each of the everyday life activities. For example, in a situation where our students can get to know each other well in role playing, the following theme of "meeting and greeting" is introduced collectively in lessons 1-4 by four different players. Nabil, who is an Egyptian student in Lebanon, goes to visit his Lebanese friend Marwan for the first time. There, he does not find his friend. Rather he finds his younger brother Khalil, who says that Marwan is at the university. He asks about his sister Zeina, whom he has met earlier, but he is told that she is busy. Classroom procedures go as follows:

1. Students listen carefully to the activity as a whole once or twice without interruptions or questions.

2. Students listen and watch the entire situation.

3. Students listen and watch the dialog of lesson 1. We explain the dialog in Arabic.

4. Students then listen and watch sketches and segments of each dialog. Students role play situations in small groups. Each group acts alone with the help of the teacher.

5. Students review segments on their own during classroom hour.

6. As a follow-up, we give students a recorded audiotape for homework and practice.

Nonverbal Communication:

We teach gestures to convey lexical meaning. This helps a person who has a minimal knowledge of Arabic. Arabs tend to gesture regardless of the intensity of their emotions. The following are some gestures that are likely to be misunderstood by Americans.

1. **Raising eyebrows**: With head shaking sideways means: I can't understand or hear; I don't get it. This happens when a student gives a wrong answer or an unclear response.

2. **Moving the tips of all fingers of the right hand** and pointing upward and accompanying with speech means: wait a minute. This is done when a person has said or read something which is wrong.

3. **Gesturing for "come here"** in Arabic is done through motioning towards the speaker with the whole hand, while it is done in America by waving the index finger. The latter gesture may be considered offensive in the Arab world, since it is generally used with dogs and other animals. This is

particularly important when teaching the imperatives: *come here, go there*, etc.

Student responses indicate that they enjoy the relaxed atmosphere when a teacher stays in the background, only monitoring class activities. Our students value "Arabic for Living" as excellent for speaking because it has many cultural and survival situations that can be used every day. "Gulf to the Ocean" helps the students to develop receptive skills, break away from rote repetition and observe live examples on the screen. Our student feedback about the two programs is very encouraging. Both courses give our students a better understanding of Arabic culture.

To learn more about teaching Arabic culture in the classroom, I would recommend the following references:

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GERMAN

Cultural and sociolinguistic features are introduced and emphasized throughout the German Basic Course. "Culture Notes" containing various aspects of German social customs, geography, politics, military institutions and history are included in our workbook. The student is asked to read these notes--written in English--at the end of each chapter. Time is set aside in class to discuss the information and, when appropriate, the students are asked to make use of it in role playing, reporting, describing, and related activities.

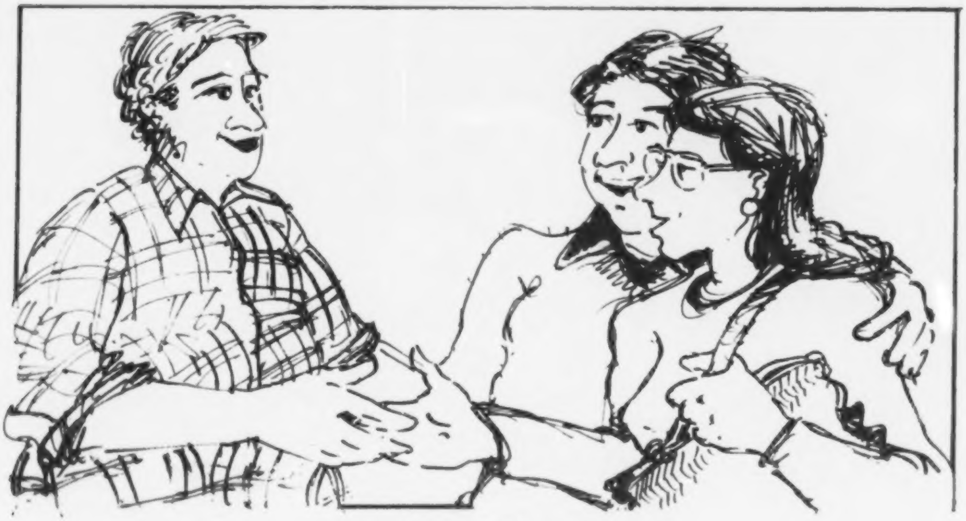
Introductory Activities

During the first class meeting, the students learn and practice how to address others. For example, with the exception of calling a waitress at a restaurant, they are told never to use *Herr*, *Frau*, or *Fräulein* unless followed by a family name. Students are asked to address each other accordingly during classroom hours. The students also learn that a lady is to be addressed as *Frau* rather than *Fräulein* when her marital status in not known.

In the second lesson, students learn the idiom *Wie geht's* (How are you?) The "Culture Notes" inform them that they may not inquire about someone's well being when meeting a person for the first time. If an American were to follow his social convention of addressing, let us say, a female hotel clerk at the reception counter with *Guten Tag, wie geht's*, he could be faced with an indignant response. A German lady is not accustomed to such inquiry by a stranger. She would usually misinterpret such a question. We also inform the students that hand shaking is done more frequently in Germany than in the United States and remind them that when a German meets someone in the street and shakes hands with him, he intends to stop and chat.

Similarities between German and English may lead to a misunderstanding. For example, when a German asks someone *Haben Sie Familie*? (Do you have a family?), the uninformed American does not necessarily realize that what is meant here is "Do you have a wife, and do you have children?"

It is rather important that the German students learn how to introduce someone to a third person, because a German does not ordinarily walk up to a stranger and introduce himself. Any German who attended a cocktail party in this country for the first time would discover how awkward it can be when there is nobody there to do the honors. We practice such introductions early in the course.



GUTEN TAG . . .

We have had rewarding experiences with students in the second week of instruction. The team of five teachers invited three sections (about thirty students) to a one-hour "cocktail party" where only German was spoken. Students had learned how to introduce someone to someone else the day before the "party." Apple juice was served and students from the various sections were to meet. They were asked to introduce a classmate to a student he had not met before and express a personal interest in the newly introduced person by asking questions about him. At the end of the party, after the students had returned to their classrooms, each student was encouraged to tell about the person he had met. This was a truly social event. It was also enjoyable for the students.

Role Playing

We prepared a separate workbook, "Role Playing Situations" which contains fifty situations of everyday life with some guidelines for the teacher. Here is an example of a classroom activity using one of the role playing situations. When one of our students goes to Germany, it may be necessary for him to find an apartment for himself or his family. Using the suggestions in the role playing book, we assign **Student A** the role of the person who is looking for an apartment. **Student B** has the role of the person at a rental agency or that of the landlord. The scenario is carefully prescribed because we want the student to use particular language forms. We also formulated the individual roles in such a way that an information gap exists between them. **Student A** has a minimum of information before him about the apartment. **Student B** must give a detailed description of it.

Advanced Organizers

We help the students to read rental ads in German newspapers. Current newspapers are distributed to the students. The abbreviations are explained and relevant cultural information is provided. For example, the student must know the meaning of "one-room apartment" in German or what kinds of fees are customary. The teacher then introduces the language forms which the student needs in order to play the role assigned to him. This includes phrases, vocabulary and idiomatic expressions. Before assigning partners for individual practice, the teacher practices with the entire class. During the student/student practice the teacher functions as a facilitator. After a five to ten minute practice--with the new language forms on the blackboard--each student pair acts out the scenario. Students exchange roles in order to allow the practice of all forms by all students. This scenario may become part of the daily quiz the next day.

Eating and Drinking

Any teacher knows that the discussion of food and drink in any culture creates general interest and excitement. We make use of this affective behavior and practice a large variety of language features which easily can be transferred to other contexts.

One could spend a large amount of time on this subject and inform the students of traditions and customs related to the preparation and consumption, for instance, of *Wurst* (sausage). When we quote German proverbs or sayings using the German *Wurst*, the students appreciate the importance of this delicacy to a German. Here are some examples:

Das geht um die Wurst which means "It is a matter of greatest importance to me."

Das ist mir wurst: "That means very little to me."

Beleidigte Leberwurst, refers to a person who easily feels offended.

In der allergrößten Not schmeckt die Wurst auch ohne Brot simply means that sausage is enjoyable even without the accompanying piece of bread.

In summary, in our German Basic Course sociolinguistic/cultural features are an integral part of our daily instruction. In role playing or when performing any other oral tasks, we expect our students to communicate appropriately. We also encourage the students to use previously learned forms in various situations.

JAPANESE

Japanese society is highly stratified. There is usually some distinction in rank between any two Japanese, whether of age, sex, or position of employment. Japanese people also have long avoided making direct and explicit judgments of good and bad. The speaker must consider the other person's social position and try not to hurt his feelings. For that reason, what a Japanese says can very easily be ambiguous to non-Japanese people.

When a Japanese is asked a definite *yes* or *no* answer, and if things do not look too promising, he would probably say, with a hissing sound, *Muzukashii desune* (It is difficult). As stated in *Business Japanese*, published by Nissan Motor Co., (1985), "It is difficult" is, after all, easier on the ear than plain "No" and you, as the guest, must of course be spared the unpleasantness of such an abrupt and clumsy reply.

This tendency to avoid explicit judgments has led to various misunderstandings between Japan and foreign countries. Japanese government officials use "Officialese" which could be translated in one way and means the other. The examples of such officialese are: *Zensho shimasu* which literally means "I will cope/deal with as appropriate" but its underlying meaning is "but it is not so important, so why bother?" (See Katsuya Mogami. 1985. "Administrative Reform on Terminology." *NHK Monthly Report on Broadcast Research*).

Cultural differences are found in the universal topic of eating and offering food. When an American holds a party, it is very common for the host to say to the guest "Please help yourself." This sentence, however, could have a rather unpleasant ring in the ears of Japanese who don't know about American customs. The meaning, of course, is simple: "Please do not hesitate and take what you want." but literally translated, as Takeo Doi says in his book *Anatomy of Dependence,* "It has somehow a flavor of 'Nobody else will help you.' Japanese sensibility would demand that in entertaining, a host should show sensitivity in detecting what was required and should himself 'help' his guests." To leave a guest alone and expect him to know where things are and help himself would seem excessively lacking in consideration.

The above stated cultural differences can easily be incorporated in short plays in Japanese. Since our textbooks do not have role playing materials included, the teachers have to make their own plays. It could be time consuming at first, but luckily we have word processors, so developing and modifying the content depending on the students' levels can be relatively easy. For those who need a greater challenge, we recommend open-ended role playing. This technique is used in the oral proficiency interview as well as by the teachers in the classroom.

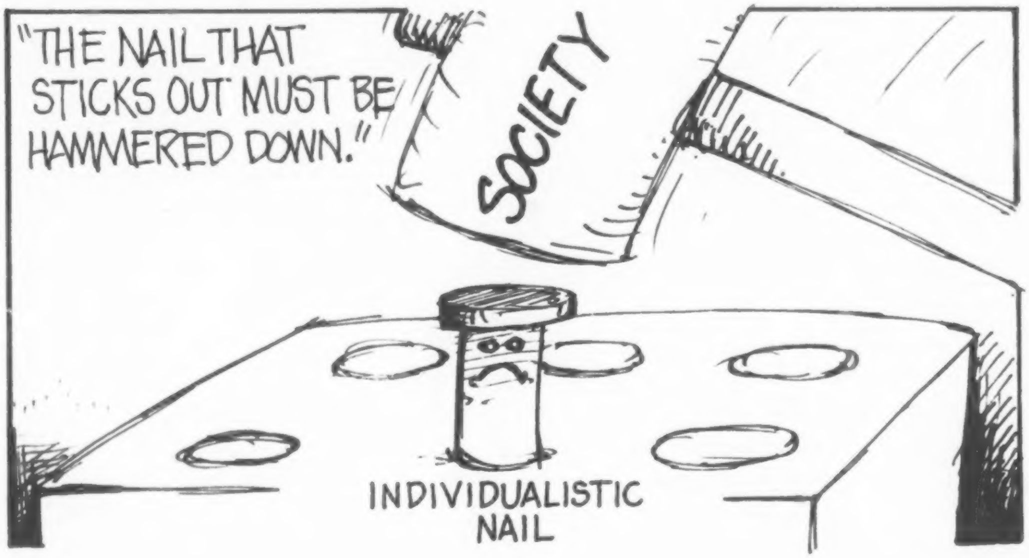
Asking Your Friend To Do Something

> You and I are friends. You want to go to see a movie, but you don't want to go to see the movie alone. Call me and ask me to come with you. (With this kind of role playing, the teacher can control the difficulty of the content depending on the levels of the participating students).

As one of the supplementary materials, we use two kinds of videotapes; one is educational video aimed at non-native speakers of Japanese, and the other is authentic video such as dramas, news, variety shows, and quiz shows broadcast in Japan. Videotapes are extremely popular among students. The student's inputs indicate that videotapes allow them: to listen to conversations between and among natives other than the teachers; to see the actual situations and actions taking place between the two natives; to observe how the culture affects its language; to remember words and patterns more easily; and to enable them to understand the situation without knowing the exact meaning of the words.

Other supplementary materials we use in our department are educational games. Some games are created and/or adapted by the teachers and some are commercial games such as Japanese versions of Monopoly and Trivial Pursuit. They are also very popular among students. The students think using games is very useful because it: 1) allows for real communication (i.e., in order to win you need to communicate), 2) provides a good break from rather dry drill practice, 3) allows students to use the language in a more relaxed atmosphere which is more conducive to the learning process, 4) makes learning more enjoyable, 5) helps to develop an ability to think on one's feet in Japanese, 6) is a good way to review vocabulary and 7) adds variety to the activities.

Teaching students Japanese sayings and proverbs is a very good way to introduce Japanese social values. The following is one example of how the social value is incorporated in the pattern explanation. When students learn a pattern of "to be good at..." (ex. Martina is good at tennis.), they might be exposed to a proverb, *Noo aru taka wa tsume wo kakusu* (The wise hawk hides his claws). Truly gifted persons may try to hide their ability, and also it is considered unsophisticated to praise oneself and show off this ability. Humble attitude is a virtue in Japan. Thus, it is appropriate for speakers to say when they describe their own ability, "I can play but not very well." Another saying which describes the Japanese social value may be *Deru kui wa utareru* (The nail that sticks out must be hammered down).


"THE NAIL THAT STICKS OUT MUST BE HAMMERED DOWN."
SOCIETY
INDIVIDUALISTIC NAIL

In Japan where conformity is a very important social value, being individualistic or different from others could be regarded as somewhat negative. It could destroy harmony and invite chaos. By presenting these proverbs and sayings, students are exposed to different social values which could influence the students' choice of words and sentence patterns as well as their behavior.

KOREAN

A person from a Western culture who wants to function in Korean society first has to become aware of the different values, attitudes and norms of behavior. Korean is noted for many speech alternates which have their origin in social structure. Korean culture emphasizes a hierarchical social system with inherent distinctions between high and low, young and old, superior and subordinate. These distinctions are reflected in Korean speech through extensive use of honorifics and numerous noun, pronoun, and verb endings. If one's level of speech does not reflect these differences of hierarchy, the speaker is regarded as rude.

In the Korean Department, cultural and area background information is incorporated into the course and is taught systematically in addition to linguistic features. Not only will a knowledge of "rules of grammar" assist students in learning to speak, but a knowledge of "codes of behavior" will also help a student understand how people from different social groups act. The following are some of the ways these cultural differences are introduced.

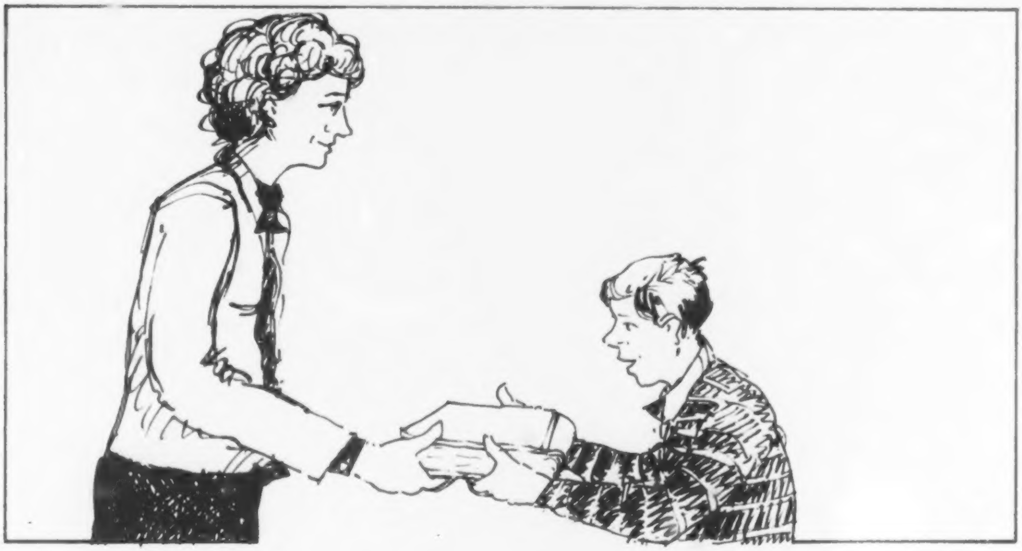
Use of Video

In teaching Korean, video is most helpful in developing linguistic skills, particularly the listening skill. Video is also used to heighten awareness of nonverbal signals and appropriate behavior.

Prior to a video session, the students read on the topic they are going to watch. A discussion or a question-and-answer period follows the showing of a videotape. For example, a simple greeting, *Annyong Haseyo?* is said with varying sentence endings--depending on the speaker's politeness and formality toward the hearer--accompanied by an appropriate gesture of a bow or a nod. An explanation of this greeting, *Annyong Haseyo?*, which in English is "How are you/Good morning/Good afternoon/ Good evening", is given to the students. This greeting carries with it a cultural message, "Are you at peace?" or, "Are you in harmony with others?", and is an expression which teaches a moral aspect of human relations with the ultimate goal of harmony.

Cultural Notes

Together with the cultural notes that are included in each lesson, proverbs, short stories and essays are introduced to the students to make them aware of possible misunderstandings that can arise between the American and the Korean cultures. For example, in order to be deferential to a superior, a Korean will avoid looking directly into the eye of a speaker. Although it may appear to indicate a lack of interest to the observer, it is not a sign that the listener is disinterested in the speaker.



Culture Capsules

Culture capsules in the Korean Department are usually prepared outside of class by a student and presented during class. A culture capsule consists of a paragraph explaining one minimal difference between an American and a Korean custom, along with a series of illustrative photos or relevant realia. For example, a student would read a prepared statement on the picture in which a youngster is handing something to a teacher with one hand. Subsequently, the student would comment that it is considered discourteous to give anything with one hand to his superior; one has to use both hands.

Immersion Sessions

Recently, we introduced a schedule which includes up to three "Immersion Hours" per day. During such hours, role-playing activities, skits, narration and presentation of materials take place using only the target language. Playing games in Korean is one of the activities that students find most interesting. An effective role-playing situation is created when the students are asked to play various members of a Korean family, and each must choose an appropriate speech level and, at the same time, act appropriately. Many skits prepared by the students bring laughter and spark to classroom activities.

Innovative instructional strategies constantly bring together language and culture in a proficiency-oriented classroom in the Korean Department.

CONCLUSION

Proficiency in a foreign language is determined in large measure by the extent to which the student is aware of cultural differences. Communication begins when people meet each other, and the first encounter with the people of a foreign country may well determine the attitudes which a person will develop toward an entire culture. On the other hand, looking into the eyes of a superior in Korea, the interpretation of a particular gesture in an Arabic country, improper bowing in Japan, not shaking hands at an appropriate occasion in Germany, Austria or Switzerland may well determine what impressions the student will give to others., We may remind ourselves that the first impression a person makes may be permanent, and we wish to help our students to be accepted abroad.

The examples we have given are intended to be illustrative. The classroom activities involving the practice of communicative skills are as varied as the resourcefulness of the teachers and the students. They can easily be adjusted to the interests and skills of the class.

Graduation is the highlight for our students. A discussion with the students at graduation reveals that there are rewards other than grades or a particular skill level. Students in general are proud of their ability to get along in a foreign language. Also, the students recognize that the world in which they live has become larger because they see it through the eyes of an Arab, a Japanese, a Korean or a German--or any other culture. Moreover, graduating students is rewarding for the teachers because they assisted in their success.

We acknowledge the assistance of:

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REAL LIFE VS. THE CLASSROOM

(ACTFL WORKSHOP REPORT)

Steven Koppány

A two-day workshop, conducted by veteran ACTFL lecturers Vicki Galloway and Isabelle Kaplan, entitled "Planning and Teaching for Proficiency," had as its goal to guide the participants in an examination of classroom learner language development in each of the four skills. Besides theory, there were ample opportunities to participate in group activities that focused on applying concepts of proficiency in terms of classroom instruction and testing, text adaptation, and determining curricular scope and sequence.

Galloway explained that before we can plan and teach for proficiency, we must be able to define exactly what we mean by that term. Too often, she said, "proficient" has been used interchangeably with such descriptors as "fluent" or "good," and only seldom have the really important questions," how proficient?" "proficient at what and in what context?" and "proficient in performing what function?" been asked. Understanding the interrelationship among accuracy, content, context, and function was essential not only for determining the performance profile of an individual, she stressed, but also for design ing effective teaching strategies for the classroom.

According to Kaplan, the proficiency-oriented teacher must also accept a number of basic assumptions. First, that proficiency is observable, and therefore is a measurable phenomenon; second, that it is demonstrated through performance; and third, that although they are closely interrelated, each modality has its own distinct identity.

We all want to bring "real-life" into the classroom, said Kaplan, but in order to be able to do so we must have a clear understanding of how language is used in real life. In real life, language is unpredictable; hence, it demands a great deal of flexibility and adaptability on the part of the user. Language in the real world is culturally appropriate and cultural situations will frequently trigger certain conventions. In real life, she stressed, meaning often depends on the context in which language is used. Accuracy in a real-world environment is not measured by the number of mistakes made, but by the degree of precision and appropriateness with which meaning is conveyed.

Real-life proficiency, Kaplan concluded, requires experience. Language in the real world, she said, is clearly related to background knowledge, which means that we cannot expect mastery of the new without its being firmly "hooked into" the old.

If we are to create real-life situations in class, insisted Galloway, we need to teach real

82

language. When teaching our students to speak, for example, she claimed, we often forget that people in real life don't always speak in complete sentences or in imperatives. They don't repeat things verbatim and occasionally, they even change topics in midsentence. They often speak to more than one person at a time, and they don't always speak face to face. Real-life communication is not always a question and answer type of exchange, and -ideally-people don't say meaningless things.

Real-life speech, added Kaplan, is spontaneous and not automatic, as it often is in the classroom. It is interactive--not responsive; creative--not conditioned; involved--not detached; trying--not safe: fumbled--not perfect; dynamic--not passive; negotiated--not predetermined. Hence, from very early on, she stressed, students need to be taught a variety of communicative strategies, including the use of pauses and discourse markers. Teachers, she added, need to make greater use of their students' imagination, creativity, and willingness to take risks.

On the practical side, there were sound suggestions concerning the optimal use of class time, the teacher's role in the proficiency-oriented classroom and curriculum design.

In the classroom, they stressed, every effort should be made to bridge the gap between input and output. Students need to be taught by doing, and they must be given opportunities to use the language in a variety of culturally appropriate contexts.

To this end, the teachers must, at times, be satisfied with partial production and must continually encourage their students to take the initiative. They must be role models as well as facilitators and guides. They must be judicious in correcting mistakes and use only the necessary amount of English in class. When developing exercises and activities, They must always be conscious of their purpose, their cultural authenticity, and the extent to which they reflect real life.

In conclusion, teachers, course developers and curriculum designers must always have some functional ability as their target, and must match linguistic input with the targeted level. They need to address all skills and maximize opportunities for language use. They must "hook" structure into the real world, and subordinate it to real-life functions. In addition, they must continuously consolidate, expand, integrate, recycle and evaluate.

If I were to choose a single word to describe my impression of this year's ACTFL conference, it would be "exhilarating." Not so much because the ideas presented were so radically new, but primarily because of the caring and forward-looking manner in which they were shared. Unpredictability, innovation, flexibility and spontaneity are all words which we normally associate with the creative arts. The new emphasis with which they were used at the conference in connection with proficiency-oriented planning and teaching provided me with new and exciting evidence that, both in terms of substance and image, our profession is now widely accepted for what it really is: a form of art that imposes no limits on creativity; its ultimate standard is not mere efficiency but excellence

FACULTY SEMINAR AT DLI

The Faculty Seminar sponsored by the Academic Advisory Council took place on Nov. 28, 1986, in Munakata Hall. Despite the fact that it was Friday after Thanksgiving, the auditorium was filled with instructors from many departments. The seminar was moderated by Ms. Brigitte Olson, School of Germanic Languages.

The seminar was opened by the Commandant , Col. Monte Bullard, who talked about the role of professional development for the DLI faculty. Col. Bullard stated that we should all strive to create a genuine academic environment. He said: "Humans must grow intellectually or they will get in a rut." Bullard pointed out that pursuing educational goals will help an individual to become a better teacher, conduct classroom research and share ideas with the profession. He added that he would like for the DLI faculty to demonstrate an intellectual curiosity by enrolling as a minimum in two pivotal courses: graduate level survey of foreign language teaching; and principles and theories of testing. Bullard pointed out that DLI could become an experimental foreign language base for the rest of the country. He said: "I would like to see people from the rest of the country coming down to see how we teach." Col. Bullard stated that the library's collection on foreign language pedagogy is growing. He reminded the faculty that a new library is under construction. Bullard added that he would like to see in it complete sets of textbooks from all over the world.

The next speaker, Provost Ray Clifford, gave a presentation titled "Education versus Training." While discussing the relationship between ideas and policies in an institution, Dr. Clifford contrasted training institutions with colleges and universities. He stated that training institutions usually are regimented and have extensive policies. Colleges and universities, on the other hand, are more concerned with ideas, more tolerant and often view mistakes as learning experiences. Next, the Provost compared the nature and purpose of training policies to educational policies. He stated that a typical university policy on grading might consist of one or two paragraphs, while a training institution's takes 20 pages to explain all the details.

Further, Clifford stated that expertise in the system is at different levels in training and educational institutions; in the former it is at the management level and in the latter--

at the individual level. The Provost emphasized that individuals can make sound educated judgments only when they have a knowledge of methods and techniques of foreign language teaching, as well as an understanding of the pedagogical and linguistic principles upon which they are based. According to Clifford, teachers who have such knowledge are better prepared to innovate and improve foreign language instruction.

Clifford complained that he often has heard a tautological argument that "Good trainers are better than bad educators." He pointed out that it would be more meaningful to discuss good trainers versus good educators. He also added that a good educator may be a very good trainer. However, a training institution needs trainers; an educational institution needs educators. Clifford emphasized that now DLI has the opportunity to become an educational institution. He concluded that the final decision will be made by each member of the faculty and staff at DLI.

Prior to the presentation, the Provost made several announcements. First, he stated that the 1988 ACTFL Conference will take place at the Sheraton Hotel and Doubletree Inn in Monterey. Four hundred DLI employees will be able to attend the conference. Next, he said that preparations are being made to launch a Ph.D. program with Stanford University for DLI employees. Clifford also added that DLI will be a part of the National Center for Language Teaching. Finally, he informed the audience, that Title VI authorizing six Regional Centers for Language Teaching has passed and that DLI also will be a part of the regional center.

The next speaker, Mr. Victor Solntsev from the School of Russian Language, gave a presentation titled "Teaching Strategies for a Basic Course." He discussed the cognitive approach, the role of grammar in foreign language teaching and the transition from control to automatic processing. Next, he talked about the use of English in a Russian classroom. Solntsev recommended that DLI teachers should try to eliminate English from instruction. He suggested that even instructions could be in the target language as a means of eliminating English from the mind of the students. He suggested development of activities which would train the students to think in the target language.

Finally, Solntsev discussed the extent of learners' preparation for a Defense Language Proficiency Test. He suggested that the instructors could prepare students to cope with it by familiarizing them with the format of the DLPT. Solntsev added that he prepared a replica of the Russian DLPT which the students try out before taking the DLPT.

Dr. Gordon Jackson of the Tests and Standards Division gave a lecture/ demonstration on "The Use of TPR (Total Physical Response) in the Classroom." TPR is a comprehension approach to language instruction in which oral production is delayed approximately 10 - 20 hours while a comprehension base is established. Dr. Jackson pointed out that TPR has been found to reduce student stress, accelerate acquisition, result in long-term retention and reduce attrition.

Dr. Howard D. Rowland of the School of Middle East Languages gave a presentation titled "Improving Reading Proficiency by means of Translation." First, Rowland reviewed several methods used in teaching reading comprehension. According to him, having all students read the same passage and translate it in writing is the most effective way of teaching reading comprehension. Next, he outlined a procedure for conducting such activity. Finally, he offered teaching tips pertaining to area background information and the use of bilingual dictionaries.

In the afternoon, Ms. Donna Marelius of the School of Germanic Languages, Mr. Jad Katrib of the School of Middle East Languages, Mr. Jose Ortiz and Ms. Heidi Johnson, both of DLI in San Francisco, conducted a "Team Teaching Forum." The first speaker, Ms. Marelius, presented advantages and disadvantages of team teaching. She pointed out that although their team was formed by coincidence, they had a successful teaching experience. Next, Mr. Katrib talked about his involvement in team teaching. Then Mr. Ortiz spoke on the impact of team teaching on curriculum development. The last speaker, Ms. Johnson, discussed the effect of team teaching on the departmental organization. She pointed out that team teachers, in addition to teaching, acquire various administrative responsibilities.

All these presentations were very well received and were followed by a number of questions from the audience.

LANGUAGE OLYMPICS*

207th MI Brigade

This brigade developed and applied *Language Olympics* strategy to promote foreign language training. Excerpts from the brigade's internal communications outline the Olympics.

1. The *Language Olympics*, a three day competition, will be held from 17 to 19 June, 1986, at Coffey Barracks.

2. The purpose of the 207th MI Brigade Language Olympics is to:

a. Promote language training within the brigade.

b. Provide soldiers an opportunity to display their skills.

c. Provide a forum for competition within and among the battalions.

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*Excerpts from Information Packet, G2/MI Commander's Conference, Fort Huachuca, AZ, 14-17 July, 1986.

d. Create a means to exchange training ideas.

3. Description of the games selected for *Language Olympics*:

a. .*Flashcard* is a 50 question event using the Microfix computer. Two contestants from each battalion language team will have 10 minutes to complete as many questions as possible. Previous computer training is not necessary.

b. *Jeopardy* is a three subject event with questions and answers given in English. Subject areas will be military weapons, military vehicles and military uniforms. This event will be played the same as the television show.

c. *Scrabble* wil be played by individuals from battalion teams. The object of the game is to construct words in such combinations so as to achieve the highest score during play.

d. *Verbal Relay* will be played by all battalion teams composed of three soldiers or more. The first team member receives text in English and translates it in team language to the second team member. The third team member receives text in team language from the second team member and translates it in English to the moderator. Points are awarded for the number of Essential Elements of Information passed to the moderator.

e. *Dig It Out* will be played by each battalion team. Contestants will transcribe a fiveminute cut of a commercial radio broadcast. Points will be awarded based on accuracy of transcription.

f. *Get the Point* is a reading comprehension test that will be played by each battalion team. The contestants will have 10 minutes to read the text and answer questions relating to the content of the text. There will be three subject area texts read and questioned.

g. *Handlogging* will be a team event played by each battalion team. After completing a handlog of a 60 second cut of a commercial radio broadcast, contestants will be asked a set of questions. Answers will be based on information in the completed handlogs. Points will be awarded for correct answers.

h. *Password* will be played by two, two-member, teams competing against each other. This event will be played just like the TV show *Password*.

i. *Equipment Dis assembly* will be played by each individual of a battalion team. Players will be required to find, disassemble and assemble an object with all instructions in the team's language.

j. *Get the Picture* will be played by each battalion team using at least two people. One team member gets a cartoon from the moderator and must describe the picture contents in detail in the team's language to his team member. The team member draws the cartoon on butcher paper, with the objective of reproducing the cartoon as accurately as possible.

k. *The Linguist Trot* will be an individual and a team event. Competitors will be required to complete specific tasks at each station along the trail. Instructions on where the next station is located will be one of the tasks at each station. This will be the last event of the Language Olympics. Points will be awarded for completing stations as well as for time of completion.

4. All events except the Linguist Trot will be subject to a 50 minute time limit. The Linguist Trot will have a 2 hour time limit.

5. Points will be awarded in each event as follows:

1st place 5 points

2nd place 3 points

3rd place 1 point

6.Battalions will be competing for the 207th MI Brigade Language Olympics Trophy, to be awarded to the battalion with the highest cumulative point total. Each language team will be competing for a Language Team plaque to be awarded to the team that has the highest cumulative point total in Czech, Russian, or German. All members of the language team with the highest point total will receive either a gold, silver or bronze medal depending on that teams overall standing in the competition. The nature of the competition stresses teamwork over individual achievement. Consequently, although prizes and or trophies will be awarded to best units and teams, there will be no prizes awarded to individuals. However, all competitors will receive a Language Olympics T-shirt, and a certificate signed by the Brigade Commander.

Note: According to Dr. Gerd Brendel, DLI Representative at USAREUR, the three day competition was a very effective activity which could serve as a model for other field units. The idea was developed by senior linguists from the battalions who also served as referees.

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DIGEST OF ARTICLES

This section contains summaries of selected articles published recently in the leading journals. The purpose of this section is to share current information pertaining to foreign language pedagogy in a readily accessible form.

Readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction* are encouraged to submit summaries of relevant articles to the editors. For details, see "Information for Contributors."

Wilga M. Rivers, 1986, "Comprehension and Production in Interactive Language Teaching," *The Modern Language Journal*; 70 (3): 1-7.

In this article Wilga Rivers challenges the assumption of the "natural" approach which maintains that prolonged intensive listening without expectations of production for some time is beneficial. Further, she wonders whether the child does learn a language without production for some time as presumed by Asher and Terrell. She points out that first language studies are identifying earlier and earlier infants' attempts to communicate. Rivers believes that it is difficult for a human being to refrain from communication and that only in the most teacher-centered, authoritarian classrooms can one impose silence. Further, she states that interaction between people who have something to share must be kept central if effective language learning, or acquisition, is to take place. Rivers emphasizes that comprehension and production are indissoluble partners in the two way process of communicative interaction. Under comprehension and production she subsumes the associated kinesics and pragmatic rules of conduct within the culture. Rivers points out that although all scholars are interested in preparing students for complete acts of communication, they differ on HOW to prepare students to use a foreign language freely and in a meaningful way.

Rivers compares the original notion of the Monitor as introduced by Carroll to Krashen's notion of Monitor. She points out that in Carroll's theory the monitor had a much more active and continuous role in communication than in Krashen's model. Further, Rivers discusses differences between the processes of listening and speaking. She writes that listeners are guided primarily by the melody and rhythm of the utterance to a segmentation into configurations from which functional relations of noun-verb-noun are extracted (usually subject-predicate-object relations). Unlike listeners who have no control over the elaboration of speech to which they are attending, speakers control the level of language by their selection of items. Following Bever and Schlesinger, she points out that speakers need grammar to express nuances of meaning whereas listeners may bypass much of it by resorting to semantic strategies. Rivers points out that since the grammar we draw on for effective realtime comprehension is different from the grammar we need to express our ideas explicitly, listening (or reading) will not result in the internalizing of the production grammar we require for speaking (or writing). Yet, Rivers complains, despite our awareness, few materials reflect this phenomenon.

Rivers implies that as a result of improper handling of productive skills some learners become "the terminal two" or "the terminal 1+." She refers to the article "The Push Towards Communication" by T. Higgs and R. Clifford who state that such learners already have acquired fossilized incorrect patterns, which are not remediable.

Finally, Rivers states that the interactive approach is the most appropriate way of balancing comprehension and production. She believes that an interactive approach requires a high degree of indirect leadership, perceptiveness and sensitivity. To find an interactive model, she encourages us to look at the classes where students are interacting not only with the teacher but also with each other and where real messages are shared in an atmosphere of trust and confidence. --L.W.

Nina Garrett, 1986, "The problem with Grammar: What kind can the language learner use?" *The Modern Language Journal*: 70 (2): 133-148.

Nina Garrett writes that the claim that the teaching of grammar is of limited use (or even counterproductive) is the cause of considerable uneasiness in the field today. Some teachers fear that the baby of grammatical competence is being thrown out with the bathwater of the grammar - translation method. Further, she points out that the controversy on the way of teaching grammar splits teachers into two camps: those who insist on a grammatical basis and those who argue against it. While the first may be accused of being old-fashioned and pedantic, the latter may be accused of encouraging "me Tarzan, you Jane" language. Neither camp, according to Garrett, can base their claims on an empirical research.

Garrett proposes that instead of asking how to teach grammar, we should first define the notion of grammar in foreign language education. According to Garrett, the most influential notion states that grammar is a compilation of forms and statements about form-paradigms, lists and word-order rules. In an extension of this definition, grammar implies arbitrary conventions, the normative rules of "good" language--an utterance must not only convey meaning, but must also do it "correctly." This notion of grammar is implied in admonitions to native speakers such as "mind your grammar!" The author writes that the notion of grammar is also used to mean analysis of a language system. Here the units of the description are not discrete, formal items but interrelated parts of the system. Garrett concludes that in all these notions, grammar is still seen as an abstract system and as correctness.

The author points out that foreign language edu cators do not always make it clear whether they are using the term *competence* in the Chomskyean sense (i.e. an underlying knowledge or set of intuitions) or in the conventional meaning of skill, capability, ability to do something well. She quotes several different statements on competence, including Chastain's: "(The transformationalists) refer to the ability as competence and to the expression of that ability as performance." Savignon insists "A person demonstrates grammatical competence by using a rule, not by stating a rule." Brown claims "Competence refers to one's underlying knowledge of a system. ...It is the unobservable, idealized ability to do something." Garrett points out that the tendency to equate these two different meanings is the cause of the problem. She writes, ". . .if competence *were* simultaneously both knowledge and the ability to put knowledge to use, then students who could demonstrate knowledge by scoring well on tests would automatically be able to use that knowledge in speaking--but our dilemma is precisely that they cannot do so. . . "(Garrett, 137)

Further, Garrett challenges the idea that learners need to learn or acquire linguistic rules to become proficient in a foreign language. She writes that despite the fact that we have no theoretical basis, even Krashen implies that students need to "use the rules" of the acquired language. Garrett points out that when we complain that teaching grammar rules does not enable the students to communicate, we only confirm that abstract descriptive generalizations do not describe the mental process by which a speaker formulates or comprehends any particular utterance. In other words, there is no justification in the equation of communicative competence with the ability to use grammatical knowledge in communication. Garrett suggests that instead of focusing on what mediates between knowledge about the system and utterance, we should focus on what mediates between thought and utterance.

Garrett proposes a set of directions for speaking and understanding a language. According to her, our steps should include: (1) setting up the propositional content; (2) choosing words; (3) selecting an appropriate construction from several discoursal and sociolinguistic options; and (4) articulating the sounds.

Damaging, from a language teaching perspective, is the implication that grammatical labels define usable linguistic categories across languages. In fact, she writes, entirely different relationships between meaning and grammatical category exist even in closely related languages For example, a certain meaning may be formally rendered with a Nominative construction in English but with a Dative construction in Polish ("The baby is cold." vs. "Dziecku jest zimno.").

Garrett also points out that although the basic associations of meaning and form are established in the mind in very early childhood, the grammatical labels, in contrast, are learned much later, in an analytic frame-work, and are not associated with the actual processing at all. Therefore, Garrett writes, in the foreign language classroom, we cannot assume that once students have been told that a given form, is "used for" the indirect object, or "indicates" a subordinate clause, they need only remember what the form is to have mastered the grammatical point. Garrett concludes that the traditional text presentation of grammar hinders not only students' direct processing but also their realization of how such processing might be undertaken.

Garrett believes that some explicit explanation and drilling of grammar is both necessary and desirable in FL classrooms. She warns, however, that it should not take up much class time. She also suggests that most of the explanation and all the drilling can be done eventually by computer.

Garrett suggests that teachers need to discuss some of the major organizing principles of a language using examples not only from English and our particular L2 but also from many other languages. According to her, some important topics might be:

-What kinds of marking devices does this language use in its code (suffixes, prefixes, infixes, word order, tones, vowel change, etc.)?

-What kinds of meanings have to be grammatically marked?

-What does grammatical case mean? What does it do for a language to have a strongly marked case system? What is the relationship between semantic roles like agent, beneficiary, patient, and grammatical notions like subject and object?

-How are time and aspect divided up in this language? Which grammatical forms express which? How do they interact?

-Which grammatical structures operate mostly on a sentence level, and which ones are used to process meaning in larger utterance units or paragraphs (i.e., devices for signalling reference to an earlier sentence, topic/comment, change of subject, etc.)?

Garrett emphasizes that those topics should be dealt with at appropriate points in the syllabus, not in a series of lectures beginning the term. Garrett points out that in introducing any particular grammatical form, teachers can establish its role in processing by: 1) evaluating how directly or unambiguously it reflects meaning; 2) identifying "linguistic complexity" (formal and conceptual). The author exemplifies that in German the concept of "plural" is similar to English while the forms of the German plural are complicated. Thus she concludes that the German plural is *formally*, although not *conceptually*, complex.

Garrett concludes that foreign language teachers should be aware of the processing which mediates between meaning and form in the mind of the speaker, and they should take steps which would enable learners to process a goal language efficiently. --L.W.

REVIEWS

Germany: 2000 Years. Volume 3,*From the Nazi Era to the Present By Gerhart Hoffmeister and Frederic C. Tubach.* 1986. *New York: The Ungar Publishing Company. 251 pp plus bibliography and index. Cost: $24.50 cloth, also available in paperback.*

For serious students of German, Reinhardt's *Germany: 2000 Years*, Volumes 1 and 2, are well known for they represent the companion to German studies . Since most English language books on this subject end at the year 1945, Volume 3 fills a need in the area of German civilization from 1933 to the 1980's. The book deals with the German past and present in five chapters: "The Third Reich," "The Immediate Postwar Years," and "Early Seventies:" "Era of Social Experimentation," and "The Early Eighties." In addition, the book has many illustrations, maps and photographs which are preceded by a preface and an introduction to the Weimar Republic.

One will notice immediately in the introduction a welcome use of German terminology and its meaning given in parentheses. This feature adds considerably to the value of the textbook, for it saves the reader time looking up definitions in the dictionary. Chapter one deals with Nazism in general terms; its ideology, foreign policy, culture, main events of World War II, and exiled German writers. One particular item worth mentioning is the subchapter on German resistance against Hitler, the expulsion of millions of Germans from eastern Europe, and the holocaust. These subjects are sometimes difficult to find in the English language editions of German readers. All of the chapters provide a fundamental overview of main events, names, places, and dates. Another unusual topic of real value is the chapter on equal opportunity at the workplace, which addresses workers' rights in the workplace, women at work, the guest worker issue, and equal opportunity in education.

"German Literature in East and West" describes German Democratic Republic (GDR) literature in passing. Only Christa Wolf is dealt with in some detail. The authors fail to include such writers as: Anna Seghers, Bruno Apitz, Hans Fallada, Friedrich Wolf, Arnold Zweig, Johannes R. Becher, Hermann Kant, Guenther de Bruyn, Jurek Becker, Stephan Hermelin, Dieter Noll, Erwin Strittmacher, Erik Newtsch, Volker Braun and Alfred Wellm. No mention is made of the *Mauerspringer*, writers who either were deported or fled to the Federal Republic of Germany. The authors also highlight certain aspects of German cultural heritage exemplified by the Leipzig St.

Thomas Choir, the Gewandhaus Orchestra, and German galleries in Dresden, Leipzig, Weimar, Berlin, and Frankfort.

This is also a good source book for the German-oriented, foreign area officer trying to gain a better understanding of the common heritage of the two Germanies. For instance, one will find the following topics covered under "East Germany" (German Democratic Republic): attitudes on terrorism; collectivization; common market; a comparison to "West Germany" Federal Republic of Germany); economy; government structure; labor movement; literature; military training; *Passagierscheinabkommen* (Border Passing Permit Regulation); the peace movement and relations with the Federal Republic of Germany.

In summary, the publication of this book is welcomed because it gives a comprehensive overview of German culture. The more interested reader will find many discussion points. For erudite readers, there is a bibliography of 247 references in the back of the book for further studies.

Wolfgang M .L. Maier

Bulletins-Premier Niveau: Sight Readings in French. By Sidney Pellissier and William Flint Smith. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1985. Pp.vii, 163.

The acquisition of reading proficiency in a foreign language has consistently been a paramount concern of foreign language teachers. Although quite often reading books do not arouse students' motivation there are sometimes exceptions, and *Bulletins* with its successful Spanish pre-cursor *Noticiario* is a recent one.

As the title suggests, *Bulletins* consists of a series of authentic short excerpts of French newsprints.; namely 47 passages ranging from 55 to 224 words (average: 155 words). They are arranged in five groups depending upon the presence of a given grammatical feature, e.g. *the passé composé*. This categorization, however, does not imply the overwhelming use of the introduced tense or grammar item as is the case with so many readers "written for the classroom." In the authors' words, it means that "the shorter and earlier passages within each of the book's five groups of readings can be assigned soon after the corresponding major grammatical components have been presented in the normal curriculum.," (*Bulletins*, p.vi.)

The wide selection of topics helps to stimulate student's curiosity and interest about human and cultural events in the United States and France. Excerpted from a variety of French media sources, the themes encompass show business, *actualités françaises*, humoristic tales, scientific news, linguistic features involving inter-language, and the world of women in various professional fields.

Each reading is divided into five parts: *clefs, bulletin, intelligence du texte, interprétation et appréciation,* and *exercices.* The text itself is preceded by a chart containing *clefs* destined to open the door to skimming compre hension. A picture illustrates the topic and connects with the title and subtitle of the reading. Potential difficulties are carefully presented in boldface referring to the exercise *intelligence du texte.* The latter provides an opportunity for comprehension of key words in context. In their introduction on "how to use this book" the authors of *Bulletins* suggest eight useful "steps to fluent reading": 1) reading the title and subtitle; 2) making the connection with the illustration; 3) comprehension of the clefs (through the study of synonyms, antonyms and key words and expressions); 4) skimming; 5)) complete reading (along with the completion of multiple choice exercises for the "intelligence" of the text; 6) scan re-reading; 7) multiple choice interpretation exercise; and 8) practice exercises (e.g. true-false, word analogy, word transformation, etc.).

The order of assignment of any of the 47 articles does not need to follow systematically the order of the book's pagination: For instance, the level of difficulty of the passage on page 8 is higher than that of the text five passages-further, on page 24. The shortness of each passage allows for quick completion of the assignment, avoiding painstaking *longueurs* Two appendices provide information on cultural contents and levels of grammatical difficulty (with indication of grammar elements included). This information facilitates the graded selection task.

Tracy D. Terrell states, "the crucial skill to be acquired is the ability to interpret meaning without understanding all the words and all the grammar elements in the reading passage."(*Dos Mundos*). *Bulletins should be used with this purpose in mind.*

The skills developed by the sight reader are different from those of the beginning student who works through translation. While the latter expresses and clarifies concepts from an English point of view, the former gradually leads her/himself into the linguistic realm of the foreign culture and learns how to interpret meaning with little or no recourse to English.

From the very early stages, reading proficiency is better acquired by working directly in the target language. This contention is based on three premises: a) refraining from translating or using a bilingual dictionary; b) working with authentic target language passages of current interest; and c) selecting familiar topics.

Compared with traditional techniques involving translation, sight reading challenges the learner's ability to develop strategies by confronting the target language directly and independently, by making intelligent assumptions, and by following step-by-step the clues which lead to decoding the foreign message, thus grasping its gist without referring to one's native language. Sight reading may quickly become a stimulating activity, an intellectual "detective game." Under the guidance of a well versed facilitator [teacher], the student acquires the skills which will enable her/him in the future to handle any unknown text through sight reading approaches.

But perhaps the most significant contribution of *Bulletins* lies in the field of methods of teaching reading. Indeed, it amounts to a teacher's manual in reading proficiency techniques. When adopting the approach provided by Pellissier and Smith, the judicious language instructor will be able to select new press articles of current interest and prepare them by emulating, modifying and even improving the techniques found in *Sight Readings in French*. On the whole *Bulletins* is to be highly recommended both to the student and the teacher of French.

Réjane G. Moreno.

NEWS AND VIEWS

Letter from Congressman Panetta

November 24, 1986

Dear Editor:

As you already know, I sponsored the Foreign Language Assistance for National Security Act of 1985 (H.R. 3048). The bill was designed to encourage the creation, development and expansion of foreign language programs at all levels. It would have authorized $75 million in aid to states and to institutions of higher education to encourage and enhance their ability to provide quality foreign language training.

Specifically, state educational agencies would compete for grants to fund model foreign language programs on both the elementary/secondary and the community/junior college level. Colleges and universities which have 5% or more of their student body enrolled in language courses and which have foreign language entrance or exit requirements would be eligible for partial reimbursement of the cost of providing that instruction. Furthermore, grants would be awarded on a competitive basis to colleges and universities, or consortia of such, to provide summer languagetraining for both high school students and teachers. Finally, funding would be made available to promote study abroad for advanced foreign language students. Such programs would take place in a non-Western European or North American country, and would encourage the combination of language study with business internships.

As we both know, Americans are increasingly recognizing the importance of foreign language training to national security and international trade. Senator Paul Simon, who sponsored the bill when he was a Member of the House of Representatives in the 98th Congress, introduced identical legislation in the Senate (S. 1631).

You will also be interested to know that I offered some of the key provisions of the Foreign Language Assistance Act as amendments to the Higher Education Act (H.R. 3700). The amendments encourage institutions of higher edcation to enact foreign language requirements and set up "model foreign language programs," authorize funds for summer teacher training institutes, and provide funds to colleges and universities for study-abroad programs, especially those combining academic work with internships in international business.

I was pleased that the Higher Education Act was reauthorized by the House on December 4, 1985 and by the Senate (S. 1965) on June 3, 1986. The Act authorizes $10.2 billion for the higher education budget in fiscal year 1987. More than 90 percent of the money authorized by both versions of the bill is for aid to students. The rest is aid to colleges for such special purposes as foreign language instruction, with $26.5 million appropriated, and endowment building. Both amendments that I attached to the legislation are included in the Act, with somewhat less emphasis on the business-academic internship program and grants for "model foreign language programs" than originally proposed due to budgetary constraints. The summer teacher training funds were included as proposed.

As you know, I completely share your belief in the importance of foreign language education. I am especially concerned about the national security implications of our present shortcomings in foreign language proficiency. It has been over five years since the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, on which I served, issued its final report. At that time, the Commission declared that "Americans' incompetence in foreign languages is nothing short of scandalous, and it is becoming worse." Although the situation has improved some-what, we still have a long way to go before we achieve true competence in our foreign language abilities and intercultural awareness.

I believe that it is vitally important that we focus Congressional and national attention on the integral role of foreign language skills in our national security and economic well-being in this increasingly interdependent world. Obviously there is much that can be done to help reverse the alarming decline in foreign language education in this country. I assure you that I will continue to work towards upgrading the status of foreign language and international studies in this country, and completing the process which the President's Commission began.

Sincerely,

LEON E. PANETTA

Member of Congress

To Strengthen the Nation's Investment in Foreign Languages and International Studies

A project staff at the Association of American Universities has developed, under a contract from the Defense Department, this legislative proposal to create a National Foundation for Foreign Languages and International Studies that would be similar to the National Science Foundation. The report points out that at present there are 196 exchange and international studies programs in 35 departments of the federal government, and that there is little coordination and much duplication and fragmentation among them. Further, while funding for these programs has decreased in recent years, the need for them has increased. As a result, linkages between universities, government, and business have suffered.

The draft of the proposed legislation would transfer to the new independent National Foundation programs currently administered under Title VI of the Higher Education Act, as well as those of the Soviet-Eastern European Research and Training Act. The sole mission of the new foundation would be to "develop and promote a broadly conceived national policy of support for foreign language, area, and international studies research and instruction" in colleges, universities, and other institutions. Anticipated outcomes include the establishment of academic research centers, projects with business and management students, academic exchanges, the award of fellowships and scholarships, the development of a common metric for language proficiency, and provision of support for library acquisitions. The Foundation, like the National Science Foundation and the National Endowments, would be funded by the annual authorization and appropriations process.

From *ACTFL Public Awareness Network Newsletter*

Bilingualism: The accent is on youth*

Stacy Wells

Like most 3-year-olds, Brian Hwang can't read, can't add up the money in his mother's wallet and can't say what is in the soup he's having for dinner. But the Ithaca, N.Y., child giggles at the stories read to him in Mandarin, counts out 20 $1 bills in English and says his soup is hot in Taiwanese.

The number of American preschoolers like Brian who are learning to speak two and three languages is on the rise because many experts and parents find that learning foreign tongues stimulates a child's mental development. Research has shown that bilingual youngsters are more imaginative, better with abstract notions and more flexible in their thinking than one-language children.

Today, there are at least 1,200 language programs nation wide for children under 6 years old, according to the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C. Yet that doesn't come close to satisfying the demand for preschool foreign-language instruction.

Shrinking world

Gunther Brandt, headmaster of the Washington International School, says the most common reason he hears from parents wanting bilingual courses for children is that "the world is getting smaller, and the U.S. is realizing it can't isolate

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*Copyright, 1986. **U.S. News & World Report**, July 28. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.itself any more."

Some parents say they regret not having learned a second language themselves. Others want to share part of their family heritage with their children. Yet many are enrolling their children in classes that have no connection with family roots. In San Francisco, nearly half the 70 preschoolers in the Nihonmachi program are non-Japanese, and more than a fourth of the youngsters at the Chinese-American International School are non-Oriental.

Preschoolers who can speak two languages learn to read more quickly than their monolingual peers, reports Kenji Hakuta, psychology professor at Yale and author of *The Mirror of Language: The Debate on Bilingualism* (Basic Books, 1986). Hakuta says that reading involves the same skills as speaking two dialects. Learning that two sounds are symbols for the same object makes it easier for the child to understand that a printed word is a symbol also.

For years, many parents worried that their children would be confused by absorbing two languages at the same time. However, researchers are finding that those raised in a bilingual home begin to talk a little later but that, once they talk, they show a better understanding of the way language works than other children do.

Bilingual children often mix their languages--something once viewed as a sign of confusion. But studies now show they are using words from one tongue to support and emphasize the other. "They are taking advantage of the richness of the languages," says Hakuta.

Catherine Snow, associate professor at Harvard's Graduate School of Education, studied English-speaking adults and children learning Dutch and determined that if an adult and a child have equal exposure to a second language, the adult will learn it faster. Adults, she says, understand how languages work and have strategies for remembering words and grammar that are more developed than children's.

Peer pressure

Teachers say youngsters have two advantages: They are not inhibited by making new, strange sounds that come along with language training, and if they are exposed to these lessons early enough, children will develop a native accent. Puberty is the generally accepted cutoff point for mastering the subtleties of an accent.

The only drawbacks that experts see in raising a child bilingually are that some might be teased because they're speaking a different language or, if placed in a class with native apeakers, might be intimidated by the fluency of the others.

When Paul Duston Munoz of Silver Spring, Md., was 3, he decided to stop speaking Spanish. He told his mother that he didn't want to be different. Although his mother still speaks to him in his first language, at age 6 he answers in English. His mother says that the only time he uses Spanish is when he is sick or thirsty at night or to say words that aren't polite in English.

Even if children reject the second tongue, say the experts, early training makes it easier to pick up the same language or begin a new one later.

Nothing in a bilingual education is ever lost, asserts McGill University psychology Prof. Wally Lambert. "It's as though the language is put on ice."

The 1986 CALICO Symposium

A. Allen Rowe

Since CALICO '87 will be held at DLI from April 6 - 10, it is timely to consider a brief review of CALICO history and a summary of CALICO '86.

CALICO Background

In the early 1980's Peter Grune of the Goethe Institute's San Francisco Center was instrumental in organizing a series of Foreign Language Instructional Technology (FLINT) conferences. In September 1982 DLI hosted one of these conferences. Mrs. Minnie Kenny, Deputy Assistant Director for Training at the National Cryptologic School, attended. BYU's Dr. Frank Otto, later Executive Director of CALICO, was also there as a presenter. During the conference, another presenter, Dr. Ed Schneider, an interactive video pioneer and key member of the BYU team which developed "Montevidisco," circulated a list to determine the interest in establishing a foreign language technology consortium.

Mrs. Kenny went away from that conference determined to further the cause of applying technology to foreign language learning. Within less than four months she had organized the NSA sponsored "ET and High Technology" Conference held in Linthicum, Maryland. This was another step on the road toward the creation of CALICO in 1983 with NSA support. CALICO Symposia were held in Baltimore in 1984 and 1985.

CALICO '86

CALICO '86 was held at the U.S. Naval Academy, Annapolis, MD, from 11 - 15 May. The conference focused primarily on technology and applied research, providing a good opportunity for foreign language teaching professionals to get a good look at foreign language technology projects from across the nation.

Participants could choose from among 14 workshops and 98 scheduled presentations organized under the heading of one of CALICO's six special interest groups: Artificial Intelligence (AI), Courseware Development (CD), Foreign Character Fonts (FCF), Interactive Audio/Video (IAV), Machine Assisted Translation (MAT), and Computers in the Classroom. Each special interest group also organized a one-hour panel discussion. The International Association of Learning Laboratories (IALL) also held its annual meeting in conjunction with CALICO '86. There was a Publisher's Panel for discussion of publication of technology related materials and booths representing 15 exhibitors.

Interactive Audio Video Emphasis

Considering DLI's recent acquisition of interactive video equipment, it is worthwhile to note the emphasis on interactive video observed at CALICO '86. In addition to the Interactive Audio/ Video Special Interest Group panel discussion, three of the 14 workshops and 25 of the 98 presentations involved interactive audio/ video. That represents more than a proportionate share of the overall conference activities and is indicative of nationwide interest in interactive audio and video foreign language learning and instruction.

CALICO '87

It should be noted that CALICO '87 will be the first of the CALICO symposia to be held on the West Coast and represents a unique opportunity for a large number of DLI's faculty and staff to participate.

Computer-Controlled Interactive Videodisc System

E. (Pete) Lallos

DLI acquired in October 1986 sixty-one (61) SONY View 1000 interactive video systems; eighteen are developmental stations, intended for use by course developers, and the remaining forty three are student delivery stations.

The SONY system is essentially identical to the interactive video system the Army is contracting to purchase as the Electronic Information Delivery System (EIDS). It is a modular, microcomputer-driven videodisc information and training delivery system. It can present video and audio instruction, and with its computer system it is capable of managing instructional programs, conducting tests, and delivering technical information in a variety of training situations.

Major components of the system include a SONY 2000 videodisc player, MS-DOS multibus computer, color monitor, light pen, and touchpad interface. The system is IBM compatible and can run most programs developed for use on the IBM. Each unit has two 3.5 inch disc drives, each capable of storing up to about 700kb of information (about 350 single spaced typed written pages). One can gain random access to any one of 54,000 frames on one side of a disc within one half second.

There are on-going programs in various stages of completion in eight languages (Arabic, French, Italian, German, Greek, Polish, Russian, and Spanish)

Forthcoming Meetings

1987

5-7 **March. Spring Conference of Colorado Congress of Foreign Language**, Fort Collins. *Information* Ron Walker, Executive Secretary; 2312 Valley Forge Court; Fort Collins, CO 80526.

11-14 March. **Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics**: "Language Spread and Language Policy," Washington, DC. *I*nformation Peter H. Lowenberg; Chair, GURT 1987; School of Languages and Linguistics; Georgetown University; Washington, DC 20057.

3-4 April. **Conference on Second Language Acquisition, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese**. *Information* Bill Van Patten, 4080 Foreign Language Building; 707S. Mathews; University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801.

6-10 April. **CALICO Seminar**, Monterey, CA. *Information* Defense Language Institute (Attn: ATFL-DIN-S), Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

9-12 April. **Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (in conjunction with Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association)**, Columbus, OH. *Information* Gerald L. Ervin, Slavic Languages & Literatures, Ohio State Univ., 232 Cunz Hall, 1841 Millikin Rd., Columbus, OH 43210. Phone (613) 422-6733 or 4398.

9-12 April. **Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association (in conjunction with Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages)**, Columbus. *Information* Robert Novotny, 6317 Austin Dr., Ashtabula 44004. Phone (216) 997-7156.

20-24 April. **American Educational Research Association**, Washington, DC. *Information*, AERA Meeting Coordinator, 1230 17th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036.

28 April-3 May. **Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages**, Hollywood, FL. *Information* TESOL, 201 DC Transit Bldg., Georgetown Univ., Washington, DC 20057.

7-10 May. **Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages (in conjunction with Washington Association of Foreign Language Teachers)**, Seattle. *Information* Ray Verzasconi, Foreign Languages & Literatures, Oregon State Univ., Corvallis, OR 97331-2289. Phone (503) 7654-2289.

29 June-7 August. **Linguistic Society of America/Association of Computational Linguistics**,

Linguistic Institute, Stanford University, Stanford, CA. *Information*

1987 LSA Institute, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305.

16-21 August. **World Congress of Applied Linguistics**, 16-21 August, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia. *Information* Dr. J. Nivette, Vrije Universiteit, Pleinlaan 2 , B-1050 Brussels, Belgium.

27-30 December. **Modern Language Association**, San Francisco. *Information* MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York City 10003.

CONTRIBUTORS

Articles

Frank Otto (Ph. D., Ohio State University) is Professor of Linguistics/CAI at Brigham Young University and Executive Director of the Computer Assisted Language Learning and Instruction Consortium.

Mehmet Ali Çiçekdag (Ph.D., University of California, Santa Barbara) is Instructor of Turkish, School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Yildiray Erdener (Ph.D., Indiana University) is Instructor of Turkish, School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute. He is currently on leave serving as Lecturer in Near Eastern Studies at the University of California, Berkeley.

Lidia Woytak (Ph.D., A. Mickiewicz University) is a Faculty Development Specialist in the Faculty and Staff Development Division, Defense Language Institute.

Faculty Exchange

John A. Lett, Jr. (Ph.D., Ohio State University) is Chief, Research Division, Defense Language Institute.

Foazi Y. El-Barouki (Ed. D., University of San Francisco) is Instructor of Arabic, School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Marianne Armstrong (Ph.D., University of California, Irving) is Education Specialist in Tests and Standards Division, Defense Language Institute.

Motoko Tabuse (M.A., Ohio University) is Chairperson of Japanese Department, School of Asian Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Alice K. Lee (M.A., Naval Postgraduate School) is Instructor of Korean, School of Asian Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Steven Koppány (M.A., Monterey Institute of International Studies) is Instructor and Acting Chairperson of Hungarian, School of East European Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Reviews

Wolfgang M. L. Maier (Ph.D., George Washington University) is Instructor of German, School of Germanic Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Réjane G. Moreno (M.A., University of Notre Dame) is Instructor of French, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Euripides (Pete) Lallos (M.A., Columbia University) is Project Manager, Educational Technology Division, Defense Language Institute.

A. Allen Rowe (M.A., University of Paris - Sorbonne) is Director, Language Technology Center, Monterey Institute of International Studies, and former Chief, Educational Technology Division, Defense Language Institute.

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James W. Dodge, Managing Editor
Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753

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Frank Otto, Executive Director
30788 JKHB, Brigham Young University,
Provo, UT 84602

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS
SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS
(PROVISIONAL)

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: REFERENCES. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrate format for bibliographic entries.

Harris, David P.1969. *Testing English as a Second*
Language. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
Dulay, Heidi and Marina Burt. 1974. "Errors and
strategies in child second language acquisition."
TESOL Quarterly 16 (1):93-95.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g. (Jones 1982:235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Footnotes should be used for substantive information only and each footnote should be typed directly below the line to which it refers. They should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript and each one should be set off from the text with a horizontal line above and a horizontal line below.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids, or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1 1/4 inch on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the new word processors (Xerox Star) which are now available in all Schools and Directorates. When the Xerox Star is used authors should submit both a floppy disc and a hard copy (paper) of the manuscript.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* or to the "Guidelines for the Preparation of Manuscripts" which appears annually in the *TESOL Quarterly*.

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their name on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3" x 5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to the Editors of *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DPL, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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GUEST EDITORIAL

Dialog on Language Instruction is intended as a forum for faculty members and others to share their ideas and experiences on language learning. This issue of *DLI* continues to fulfill the promise its title implies. Within its pages the reader will find not only ideas on foreign language instruction, but also disagreements on how to best provide that instruction. Varying perspectives are to be expected in any professional field, and differences of opinion are indeed beneficial. The one thing all professionals within the field of foreign language teaching can agree upon is that the perfect instructional program--one which can be applied by any teacher, with any student, in any setting--has not yet been developed.

It is therefore a professional imperative that we continue our quest for excellence in foreign language teaching. This means searching, listening to others' ideas, testing concepts and approaches, and retaining in our pedagogical repertoire those concepts, techniques, and strategies which work. As professionals at DLIFLC we are fortunate to be fully immersed in our field, and can look forward to the daily challenges of working in an institute where language instruction is our only business.

Sometimes, however, the same enthusiasm and exuberance which makes us successful as language teachers can lead to pendulum-like swings from one bandwagon teaching method to another. Of course this state of reaction and counter reaction is preferable to a state of inaction and stagnation, but our professional efforts would be even more productive if we were better at defining the teaching methods we use. This criticism can be applied to both the producers and consumers of publications on foreign language teaching. If the author of an article fails to provide adequate operational definitions, then the consumers of professional literature must be extra cautious in interpreting that article. It is fairly obvious, for instance, that the term "communicative competence" does not mean the same thing to all authors who have written on the subject. Furthermore, when discussing teaching issues, the often subtle distinction between "what" and "how" can be critical. The current discussion about the teaching of grammar, for example, is often clouded by a failure to separate the question of whether to teach grammar from the question of how to teach grammar.

Increased attention to operational definitions can make our professional dialog more efficient, but it is the dialog which is crucial. The sharing of ideas (even if we occasionally miscommunicate) is an essential component of our quest for excellence. Let's keep the dialog going--not just within the pages of *DLI*, but within and across departments at *DLIFLC*.

Ray T. Clifford

FROM THE EDITOR . . .

The previous issue which established *Dialog on Language Instruction* as a new vehicle for professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program was well received. Both laudatory comments and suggestions were appreciated.

We begin this issue with a guest editorial which reminds readers about the nature of professionalism and the role of professional literature. We have two major articles resulting from the DLIFLC/ACTFL Master Lecture Series which has been an important part of our professional development program for many years.

Tracy Terrell's efforts represent a rare combination of a paper evolving from several presentations followed by various versions each of which included previous discussions and exchanges of correspondence as part of an ongoing debate. Thus, we have the benefit of much refinement and sharpening of the issues that arise from comparing the role of grammar with either a communicative-oriented emphasis or with an accuracy-oriented emphasis in communicative language instruction, as well as from attempting to identify some of the causes of a terminal profile of fossilized communicative ability at the various levels of proficiency. Is the natural acquisition process suitable for effective classroom instruction or does it inevitably lead to low proficiency terminal profiles?

Heidi Byrnes brings into sharp focus both old and new issues about the relative role and efficacy of teaching reading skills in relation to other language skills. She clarifies new insights into the process and nature of reading, especially as part of a communicative curriculum. She provides recommendations on selection of texts and strategies for instruction, as well as summarizing many effective classroom activities for the improvement of foreign language reading instruction.

The **Faculty Exchange** section includes an unusual interview with the renowned educator Robert Gagné on how his ideas and theories on learning outcomes relate to foreign language instruction. Our own faculty have also contributed reports on results of a classroom experiment, how a popular game was adapted for productive classroom use, and a fully documented account of several sessions at the 1987 TESOL Conference.

The **Review** section contains a provocative review on the subject of language competence as a national security asset and a review of a supplementary reading text in Arabic.

Avoiding Fossilization in Communicative Approaches*

Tracy David Terrell

1. INTRODUCTION

Theodore Higgs and Ray Clifford in a paper titled "The push for communication" (Higgs and Clifford 1982) make a number of proposals for the teaching of foreign languages concerning the relative importance of components in a foreign language course, and in particular the role of grammatical accuracy in early stages of language instruction (1982:74). These recommendations are based on their experiences with students who apparently reach a particular plateau in their foreign language studies and then find it difficult to make further strides toward the level of proficiency of native speakers. Higgs and Clifford claim that students who develop functional levels of communicative ability based on a low level "interlanguage" in which simplification strategies predominate, will later find it difficult, if not impossible, to replace this sort of speech with more complex speech containing grammatically correct forms (1982: 67-68, 74). They term this condition a "terminal profile" and advise foreign language instructors to reconsider the roles of communication and accuracy in a foreign language course.

In addition, Higgs and Clifford also point out on a more general level that, in making decisions about the role of accuracy in course planning, many of us in the foreign language profession have not looked carefully at purposes for learning the target language and the contexts in which the students will use the language they study. They note the "...apparent assumption that the same communication skills that allow one to obtain food in a restaurant would also serve to negotiate a business contract or an international treaty" (1982:59).

The Higgs and Clifford paper appears to have been written in reaction to early work on communicative competence such as Savignon's 1972 work with foreign language communicative activities.

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*This is a revised and enlarged version of a series of talks given at the Defense Language Institutes in Monterey, San Francisco and San Antonio. I am grateful for comments from Ray Clifford, Theodore Higgs, Kerry Kilorn, Stephen Krashen, Leonard Newmark, Bill Van Patten, and Wilfred Voge.

They particularly were bothered by methodologies which "...lead the students too rapidly into the 'creative aspects of language use'" (1982:74). According to the authors, "...the premature immersion of a student into an unstructured or 'free' conversational setting before certain fundamental linguistic structures are more or less in place is not done without cost" (1982:74). Apparently they believe that such methodologies and techniques may be used without taking into consideration the level of skills the students may need and without realizing that such techniques may lead to what they call the "terminal profile."

Unfortunately, this article appeared in print just as a number of communicative approaches, many proposed much earlier, began to be adopted by some American foreign language instructors. The result has been that the article has been perceived as an attack on communicative methodologies in general and a proposal to return to accuracy-based instruction complete with direct, interruptive error correction and a focus on the learning of basic structures before attempting any sort of "free" communication.[1] It is this latter, quite prevalent, interpretation of the Higgs-Clifford proposals I will argue against in this paper.

Both of the points made by Higgs and Clifford, I believe, are well taken. However, instructors who use communicative techniques and/or methodologies can affirm that their students have made great gains in ability to understand and speak the language they study. Even more important, in my mind, are the gains made on the affective level: most students and instructors enjoy communication-oriented language classes more than those based on methodologies which stress the "overlearning" of grammatical forms and structures as a prerequisite to communication. Thus, while it is true that the relative weight given to the various components of a course and the emphasis put on the development of accuracy in both listening and speaking skills should depend on the uses to which proficiency in the target language will be put, and certainly instructors will want to avoid using techniques which will lead to the terminal profile problems experienced by some students, we would not wish to "turn back the clock" losing the breakthrough and advances made with communicative methodologies. In addition, I do not believe that their specific proposals for the structuring of foreign language courses are warranted by either their observations on the level of communicative competence required by different language functions and contexts or by the "terminal profile" problem they point out.

In this paper, I will argue, that communicative methodologies do not necessarily, or even customarily, lead either to low levels of accuracy and inability to interact in communicatively complex situations or to terminal profiles. I will argue that at least one of them, the Natural Approach, a communicative approach I first proposed in Terrell (1977) recommends specific mechanisms which attempt to avoid the terminal profile problem. In a follow-up paper, I will deal with what I believe to be a more general manifestation of the terminal profile problem, namely, "fossilization" and will try to draw some conclusions as to its cause and possible remediation. First, however, let us turn to a very brief examination of some of the previous research on the general issue of fossilization.

2. FOSSILIZATION

Selinker (1972:225) mentions fossilizable linguistic phenomena in the learner's interlanguage: "...linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL." Selinker focusses on how to predict which items in which interlingual situations will be fossilized and why some learners fossilize and others do not.

The explanation of Virgil and Oller (1976:281) for fossilization is the lack of negative feedback: "Expected negative feedback on the cognitive dimension of language usage is the principal destabilizing factor in the development of learner grammars. When the configuration of feedback to the learner becomes predominately expected positive feedback on the cognitive dimension, it is predicted that the learner's level of proficiency will tend to fossilize." [2]

Selinker, Swain and Dumas (1975:140) claim that rules may fossilize in two cases: "...when the second language acquisition is non-simultaneous (with the acquisition of L1) and also when it occurs in the absence of native speaking peers of the target language." [3]

Schumann (1975b:viii) claims that fossilization, which ultimately stems from what he calls pidginization, is directly controlled by socio-cultural variables. Schumann says that "Pidginization occurs when a language is restricted to the communication of denotative referential information and is not used for integrative and expressive functions. Restriction to the communicative function results from the learner's social and/or psychological distance from the target language group." Schumann goes on to propose the acculturation hypothesis (Schumann 1978) in which fossilization is directly controlled by the cessation of the learner's acculturation into the target society.

Scovel (1969, 1976, 1977) focuses on the source of fossilization and argues in favor of the view that individuals who begin to learn the TL after the time of puberty will always experience permanent fossilization far from TL norms. Scovel claims that this is due to a loss of brain plasticity associated with advancing age.

This brief overview shows that there have been at least five possible sources of fossilization posited by researchers: (1) transfer from the native language, (2) lack of negative feedback, (3) lack of a native speaking peer group, (4) lack of acculturation, (5) lack of plasticity in the brain of adult learners. I will return to these claims in the paper mentioned earlier on fossilization. For the purposes of the present paper, it is sufficient to say that the five are not necessarily mutually exclusive and, as we shall see, Higgs' and Clifford's recommendations appear to be based on the "negative feedback" argument. I argue later in this paper that the lack of negative feedback is not the source of a terminal profile, and that in fact Higgs and Clifford in their advice to avoid putting the students in situations in which they must communicate using language they can not possibly have had a chance to acquire, have pointed out the principle mechanism for both the terminal profile and fossilization.

3.THE TERMINAL PROFILE PROBLEM

Higgs and Clifford base most of their methodological and curricular recommendations to foreign language teachers on an analysis of students who suffer from the so-called "terminal-2" problem.[4] As we have seen in the previous section, this particular terminology is a DLI specific application of the more general problem of fossilization. The facts according to Higgs and Clifford are as follows: there are some students in government language training programs who seem unable to progress from a level 2 or 2+, which is a comfortable level for most daily interactional needs, to a 3 or 3+, which is the level required for professional interaction in the target language. More specifically, they claim that what they call "fossilized incorrect patterns" (1982: 67), that is, incorrect forms and structures, presumably result from simplification strategies used by certain learners while trying to communicate with native speakers at a time when the learners have acquired very little of the target language. According to Higgs and Clifford "...such fossilized patterns are typically not remediable, even in intensive language training programs or additional in-country living experience" (1982:67). The combination of high ability to function in the target culture with low levels of grammatical accuracy is called a "terminal 2/2+," using the familiar FSI 0-5 scale of oral proficiency, or more generally, a "terminal profile."

Sources of the terminal profile Higgs and Clifford claim that terminal profile students apparently arise from one of three contexts: those students who acquired the target language without any formal instruction in a natural acquisition environment, those who had instructors with low L2 skills, and those who studied in programs which put little emphasis on grammatical accuracy. In this section, I will comment informally on these claims about the sources of terminal profile students and reject two of the three.

Let us consider the claim I believe to be correct: learners who acquire the target language without formal instruction by using it for communication in a natural acquisition environment may develop terminal profiles. First, I should state that my experience with such students is very limited. I have taught several students in advanced Spanish classes who "picked up" Spanish entirely through communicative experiences while living in a Spanish speaking country. All of these students had acquired the target language quite well, and they experienced little difficulty in correcting the few remaining incorrect patterns they had erroneously acquired. None could have been classified as exhibiting terminal profiles. On the other hand, I have spoken with many non-native speakers of English who regularly use incorrect patterns when speaking English.[5]

These and other informal experiences mainly with learners of English support Higgs' and Clifford's assertions: such "terminal profile" learners are almost always those who have relocated to an environment in which the target language is spoken and have used it successfully for a large number of years. For some learners the target language even becomes the primary language for communication and the native language is no longer used extensively.

On the other hand, although the sort of fossilization described by Higgs and Clifford certainly is very common, it should not be presumed, nor do I believe that Higgs and Clifford are trying to imply, that all learners who simply "pick up" a language through communicative experiences necessarily acquire large numbers of incorrect fossilized structures and later exhibit a terminal profile. I am at the present time looking in some detail at two cases of native speakers of English who have successfully acquired Spanish in the Dominican Republic without instruction and grammar study of any sort. Both subjects are married to Dominican men and in addition to using Spanish on a daily basis outside the home also use Spanish at home with their spouses and in the case of one of the informants even with her children. Although their Spanish is by no means perfect, they communicate quite well on a professional level (both are at least 3+). Preliminary investigations reveal, however, that certain, more complex structures, are apparently successfully avoided in normal conversation.

In any case, it is clear to me that one of the sources for the terminal profile is, as Higgs and Clifford suggest, the group of learners who have used a reduced version of the target language successfully for many years in a natural acquisition environment. I have no idea what proportion of "natural" acquirers fossilize far below native speaker levels, but for the purposes of this paper, it is not necessary to show that the terminal profile is even the norm for naturalistic learners. Rather it is enough to recognize that such learners do exist and that the phenomenon is not uncommon.

Higgs and Clifford also believe that there are at least two other circumstances which lead to a terminal profile: "...the terminal cases whose foreign-language background had included only an academic environment all came from language programs that either were taught by instructors who themselves had not attained grammatical mastery of the target language--and hence were unable to guide their students into correct usage--or by instructors who had chosen not to correct their students' mistakes for philosophical, methodological, or personal reasons" (1982: 68). I will argue that there is at present no convincing evidence for either claim.

Higgs and Clifford, themselves, do not present any evidence for either of the two purported sources for terminal profiles.[6] Presumably, it would indeed be difficult to attain high levels of grammatical accuracy from instructors who themselves are not proficient in the target language, if the instructors were the only, or even the principal source of comprehensible input. However, it is difficult to maintain the hypothesis that having been taught by a less-than-proficient instructor results in a terminal profile, dooms one to ever attaining high levels of accuracy. This unfortunate state of affairs would most certainly apply to many foreign language students in the United States (and I suspect also in the world). It certainly is the case for students of English around the world who begin their study of English in primary schools, usually with teachers whose oral command of English is neither fluent nor accurate, and many of these students will go on to become very proficient speakers of English.[7]

The claim that terminal profile students result from programs or methodologies which do not correct student speech errors is difficult to evaluate, since it is not clear what sorts of instructional methodologies or philosophies the authors are referring to in the second part of this claim or even could have referred to in 1982. Even in Savignon's first experiment with communicative language teaching in 1972, only one day per week in a college level French class was devoted to communicative activities, perhaps a controversial position for 1972, but hardly innovative in 1982 when the Higgs-Clifford paper was published! The title of the paper and the discussion implies that the reference is to "communicative" methodologies in general and certainly, as I have said, the foreign language profession has taken it to refer to any methodology which does not stress accuracy from the beginning.[8]

Although communication-oriented methodologies were quite commonly used in Europe and even in this country in English-as-a-second language classes, when the Higgs/ Clifford paper was written, they are only now beginning to be adopted by foreign language instructors in this country. Thus, it is doubtful that the students of government programs who may have been tested by Higgs and Clifford could have received the kind of training they describe.

Thus, unless more evidence is forthcoming, for the present I will accept the contention that a terminal profile is a possible (but not inevitable) result of untutored acquisition in a natural acquisition environment, but not necessarily common in classroom instruction.

Remediation of a terminal profile Higgs' and Clifford's claim that students with fossilized patterns are not usually able to overcome them even with extensive formal training, hence the word "terminal" in the phrase terminal profile. This claim is possibly the most important in the paper, since it provides the justification for their recommendations to language instructors. As I said, I have not had extensive experience with such students, but certainly it seems to me to be reasonable that learners who have communicated successfully for many years with a reduced form of the target language would have tremendous difficulty in improving their grammatical accuracy in casual speech even with intensive training and high motivation.

There are two major questions which arise from Higgs' and Clifford's observation: (1) How long does it take for irreversible fossilization to set in? (2) How much language training would it take to correct these patterns? Certainly, if it takes five years or more of daily interaction in the target language for fossilization to take place, then the entire Higgs/Clifford discussion is probably irrelevant to most foreign language teachers in this country. On the other hand, it may be that to remediate certain kinds of fossilization may take more instruction or perhaps simple more experience. VanPatten (1987) argues that what many have considered to be irreversible fossilization may be actually "plateau-like effects." It is possible then some learners who use what appears to be fossilized structures may experience a surge of acquisition later. However, even if VanPatten is correct, there will still remain many cases of learners who have had almost a lifetime of comprehensible input and who still use speech fossilized at low levels of grammatical accuracy.

In summary then, I am not convinced that Higgs' and Clifford's analysis of either the sources nor the prognosis of students who exhibit terminal profile syndrome is accurate. I do not believe that there is compelling evidence that either instructors with low level target language skills or communicative-oriented methodologies are major sources for students with a terminal profile. Nor am I convinced that patterns of errors which have been acquired in the classroom are impossible to remediate. What is clear, however, is that a problem does exist, there are indeed adults who acquired a language in a natural acquisition environment and who customarily use speech which contains fossilized structures. And I do agree that we as language instructors should try to determine what causes fossilization in order to avoid doing anything in class which would promote or encourage it.

4. METHODOLOGICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Higgs' and Clifford's recommendations for avoiding the terminal profile problem fall into two general categories which I will paraphrase as follows: (1) emphasize linguistic accuracy from the beginning of language study and (2) avoid free conversation before fundamental linguistic structures are acquired. I will argue that both proposals are fundamentally flawed and that this approach to the terminal profile problem leads them to make other rather strange recommendations.

Higgs and Clifford are not just claiming that an early insistence on grammatical accuracy in students' speech will lead to more accurate speech. They make the much stronger claim that students who do not have the benefit of such concern on the part of their instructors may be "condemned" to a terminal performance profile.

> Let us consider the question of program objectives. It sounds reasonable to argue that since we're going to have the students for only a limited time, and since they're not likely to become genuinely fluent speakers of the target language as a result of our program alone, then it's better to provide them with what they'll be happy with, what they can probably handle with relative ease, and with what our staff can reasonably be expected to deliver in the time available. Yet, what sounds so reasonable may in fact condemn the student client to a proficiency level far below the one to which he or she aspires (Higgs and Clifford 1982:75).

And particularly irritating to those professionals involved with the development of methodologies and materials for communicative approaches, they go on to hint that the choice of methodologies which do not stress immediate grammatical accuracy may involve issues of "professional ethics."

> What is at issue is whether we opt for a program that produces a terminal 2/2+ or for one that produces a 2/2+ capable of going on under different circumstances--intensive instruction, foreign study or residence--to become a 3, a 4, or in rare cases, even a 5. Viewed in this light, matters of public relations or short-term effect on student motivation take on a different cast, and the complementary notion of professional ethics moves into the foreground (Higgs and Clifford 1982:75).

Finally, they resurrect the old suggestion of operating with a "two-track" curriculum.

> What may be needed is a two-track curriculum, with an unabashedly communicative syllabus for students whose terminal objective is to function marginally well in the target language, and a linguistic competence tract for those who aspire to using the language professionally... The danger in the two-track approach, of course, is that a student who completes "the communication track" and has become genuinely excited about the target language may find it impossible to switch over. Evidence suggests that four semesters of instruction are enough to produce a terminal profile, and the time needed may in fact be even less than that. And the bottom line might be that the students' ability to communicate would not be materially better than if he or she had taken the other track from the beginning (Higgs and Clifford 1982:75-76).[9]

The suggestion that free conversation be avoided until basic structures have been acquired is not new. It is one of the basic tenets of grammar-translation, audio-lingual and the cognitive approaches and was probably held by most foreign language instructors in North America before the advent of communicative approaches. Indeed the position of all communication-oriented approaches I am familiar with is that grammatical forms and structures are acquired only through participation in communication activities, not prior to them.

It would be impossible to examine all extant forms of methodologies which are in opposition to these recommendations. However, let us now turn to one specific "communicative" methodology I am familiar with, the Natural Approach, and examine certain characteristics which are designed to develop communicative

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competence with the purpose of ascertaining what the effects of these same characteristics might have on the terminal profile syndrome.

5. NATURAL APPROACH

Natural Approach (NA) is a communication-oriented methodology which is designed to introduce beginners to a second or foreign language.[10] The goal of NA is that language students be successful in communication interactions with native speakers of the target language and that they have a positive attitude toward the learning experience and the learning of languages in general.[11] The level of proficiency to be attained depends on the particular goals and needs of the students. The controlling methodological characteristic of NA is the provision for comprehensible input and opportunities for low-anxiety interaction in so-called "stages" of acquisition. Because of the emphasis on low-anxiety and the desire to focus on the communication of messages, NA recommends that the oral output of students not be corrected directly by the instructor, who is to attend to the message the students are attempting to convey. Correct forms and structures are usually available to the students in the follow-up and expansion. In this sense, NA is in direct opposition as a methodology to Higgs' and Clifford's advocation of "accuracy-first" programs (1982:74).

The provision for "stages of language acquisition" in which different techniques and materials are used at different acquisitional stages is perhaps the methodological tenet most characteristic of the NA. Consequently, there exist teaching techniques for beginners in three stages of linguistic development : Stage I, the Comprehension (or pre-production), stage in which learners need not use the target language to respond, Stage II, Early Speech (or early production), in which learners are encouraged to participate in target language interactions using minimal (usually one-word) responses, and Stage III, Speech Emergence, in which students are encouraged to respond with longer (sentence level) utterances. NA is concerned mainly with methodology for beginners since students beyond FSI 1+ will have widely varying goals and no one methodology, or even approach, is likely to be applicable to all students.

6. NATURAL APPROACH AND THE TERMINAL PROFILE

Certainly no communicative approach is interested in students speaking the target language with low levels of grammatical accuracy, NA being no exception. On the other hand, proponents of all approaches aimed at foreign language instruction in the United Stated would be delighted to be able to claim to produce students who function at the FSI 2+ level of proficiency after one or two years of secondary or college level instruction. There are two potential areas of conflict between the NA methodology and Higgs' and Clifford's recommendations to foreign language instructors. One lies in NA's refusal to accept the implementation of accuracy-first courses and thereby recognizing error correction as a primary, or even secondary, means of acquisition of correct grammatical patterns. The other is the extensive use of communicative activities in which the focus is on meaning rather than form. According to Higgs and Clifford both practices may lead to the terminal profile they consider to be so undesirable. I will argue, however, that error correction plays no role whatsoever in the development or avoidance of the terminal profile and that the mechanism of "stages of acquisition" guards against exactly the sorts of excesses in communicative activities Higgs and Clifford justifiably reject.

Accuracy-first courses Higgs and Clifford contrast "communication-first" with "accuracy-first programs" (1982:74). They claim that students in the former are "...either unsuccessful at increasing their linguistic ability or tend to show improvement only in areas in which had already shown high profiles." Students in accuracy-first programs "typically show the opposite prognosis."

T'here is no evidence that I am aware of, either in the Higgs-Clifford paper, nor in my own experience, that a communication-first course will necessarily, or even customarily, lead to a terminal profile, nor for that matter that an accuracy-first track or one which avoids communicative activities before the "fundamental linguistic structures are more or less in place" (1982:74) will guarantee that one will be avoided. Indeed the original impetus for communicative approaches both in Europe and the United States was the clear failure of approaches which are organized around a grammatical syllabus and which emphasize linguistic accuracy at all stages to produce even the most minimal of communicative competence. Four college semesters of accuracy-first instruction, as was so common in foreign language programs in the past, usually result in almost no communicative competence at all (at most an FSI 0+ or perhaps an FSI 1), and surprisingly little grammatical competence. Indeed I have met not a small number of foreign language majors, and even teachers, who had participated in grammar-based programs which stressed accuracy, and who, after four years of instruction, barely reach 1+ levels.

Let us now examine the role of error correction and more generally the issue of the fossilization with incorrect forms and structures. Although Higgs and Clifford do not themselves recommend direct interruptive error correction, it is my impression that this is the practice most commonly associated with accuracy-first programs.

Higgs and Clifford insist that once incorrect patterns are automatized, they are difficult, if not impossible to replace with correct ones. They base this claim on a concept taken from psychology, proactive interference, in which "the prior learning of task A interferes with the current learning of task B. The degree of interference corresponds to the strength of A, which in turn depends on the duration and frequency of the practice at that task" (1982:68). While this sort of interference may be a factor in many types of learning, second language learning included, what is not clear is the strength of the "duration" and "frequency" factors. The effects of extremes are easy to estimate, for example, the daily use of English third person singular form without -s for 20 years would most certainly be difficult (but perhaps not impossible) to eradicate, but not the occasional use in conversation of a non-conjugated verb form in French. Thus, it is not so clear how much incorrect use is necessary as to produce a terminal profile or indeed if this is even possible in a normal foreign language class.

It is true that ungrammaticality in student speech is tolerated in a NA class when students participate in communicative activities.. For example, English speaking students whose target language is Spanish characteristically vacillate between masculine and feminine forms of adjectives, violating rules of gender agreement. Most students tend to overuse masculine forms, although a few occasionally show the opposite tendency. Thus, their speech at first is full of phrases like *blusa bonito* (pretty blouse) and *camisa amarillo* (yellow shirt). A NA approach instructor responds to such errors as would a caretaker talking with a child or a native speaker talking to a foreigner: *Si, es muy bonita laq blusa.* (Yes, the blouse is very pretty), using the correct gender-marked form. Lack of direct error correction does not impede in any way the development of the ability of the students to access nouns and adjectives with correct gender marking. One study of the spontaneous speech of NA students (Kelly 1982) midway through an academic year of study, showed that first year students (after 15 weeks of study) produced gender errors in only 13% of the possible cases and that this number decreased to 8% for second years students and 5% for third year students. Thus, the toleration of some morphological and syntactic errors, i.e., those which do not impede communication nor place an extraordinary burden on a normal native speaker listener, for the 100-300 hours of instruction in first and second year language courses does not necessarily lead to a terminal profile or to fossilization.

On the other hand, I have come in contact with many non-native speakers of Spanish who have lived numerous years in a Spanish-speaking country and who still cannot accurately access to either the correct forms of words which can be gender marked. Therefore, it is clear that such a profile does indeed occur in a natural acquisition environment, However, we should keep in mind, that many of these same learners in a natural acquisition environment have had extensive instruction in Spanish grammar: and even those who cannot state the rule of gender agreement explicitly. Therefore, it is certainly not the case that grammar instruction or explicit knowledge of rules of grammar will guarantee the avoidance of a terminal profile.[12]

Higgs and Clifford make two specific suggestions to foreign language instructors which supposedly would lead to a greater emphasis on accuracy (presumably in order to avoid later problems with terminal profiles): (1) require heavy monitoring, (2) no reward for linguistically inaccurate, but otherwise successful communication of meaning (1982: 78). Let us examine each recommendation with respect to communicative approaches, in particular NA.

Monitoring All communicative approaches deal with the problem of when and how to require attention to grammatical details, i.e., monitoring. In Krashen's framework (Krashen 1982) there are "under-monitors," those who do not or can not think consciously about accuracy while they talk, "over-monitors," those who allow attention to grammar to interfere with the communicative process, and "optimal-monitors," those who are able to use the monitor to improve accuracy in using markers which are easy to learn through grammar study but difficult (for whatever reason) to acquire. In addition there are "super-monitors," those few individuals who are able to do extensive monitoring without interfering with communication. The position of NA, and I think of most communicative approaches, is that a language class should try to encourage students to be "optimal-monitors." Higgs' and Clifford's use of the phrase "albeit under heavy monitoring at first" appears to imply that students who cannot be "over-monitors" or "super-monitors" are doomed to become "terminal-2's" but I doubt that the authors meant this to be taken so literally.

My characterization of Higgs' and Clifford's second suggestion is perhaps slightly misleading since they state the proposal positively: "It is when students are regularly rewarded for linguistically inaccurate but otherwise successful communication of meaning or intent that the threat of proactive interference in the form of fossilization looms largest." It is unclear exactly what they are proposing, even though intuitively there appears to be a germ of truth in the statement. Suppose an ESL student answers the question *What does your brother do?* with *He work in a hospital*. Are we not to reward the student for a meaningful response and instead call his/her attention to the missing verb marker, or are we to accept the answer as meaningful and in addition call attention to the missing marker? But the first solution, common to old-fashion translation, audio-lingual and cognitive approaches, is grammar clearly unacceptable and would be rejected also by Higgs and Clifford. But, even the second, somewhat more moderate and I assume acceptable to Higgs and Clifford, is not as simple as it may seem. Grammatical corrections interrupt the students' thoughts and they are, at the very least, irritating, and, worse, they often severely interfere with the interaction. In most communicative approaches, NA included, the instructor would react to the message and expand the student's respone with something like "Oh, he works in a hospital. What does he do there?" These expansions are used extensively by most NA instructors, although there is no evidence, direct or indirect, that they help the student who has made the error to acquire the correct form or structure.

Until there is some conclusive evidence concerning the role of direct, interruptive error correction during normal conversation, the moderate position is precisely the one that both caretakers of children and those who deal with foreigners take: avoid it![13] In conclusion, informal evidence from students who have successfully completed NA courses and from natural acquirers suggest that the terminal profile may not be related to grammar instruction or to error correction at all.

Communicative activities Higgs' and Clifford's second proposal is to avoid tasks which require production far beyond the student's current capability, since they will force them to make use of radical production strategies. These strategies presumably will include drastic grammatical simplification, before they have mastered the appropriate linguistic structures. I believe that this recommendation contains the key to an understanding of both the terminal profile and the importance of the concept of stages of language acquisition if one ignores the provision concerning the prior mastery of linguistic structures.

First, let us reexamine the natural acquisition situation. Adults who find themselves in an environment in which a new language is spoken will begin to acquire the language if they are put in situations in which they need to interact verbally with native speakers of that language. But while adults are perfectly willing to interact with children in a "comprehension" stage, talking to them while expecting little or no verbal responses in the target language, they are not willing to do so with other adults. The result is that in order to get the comprehensible input they need to begin acquisition, adults have to produce utterances in the target language. But since they have not had the opportunity to acquire what they must produce, they fall back on a small number of strategies: use of the native language syntax with target language words, use of single words and short phrases in the target language, and a mixture of native language syntax and simplification strategies. Thus, from the beginning, adult acquirers are forced into situations in which they must produce beyond their acquired level. In many cases, this situation is resolved without any detrimental effect. As learners progress, some develop their listening skills enough so that their speech begins to change in the direction of the forms and structures processed in the input.[14]

Other learners find that their production strategies produce results: they understand native speakers, native speakers understand them and in addition they rarely receive native feedback, and especially not direct error correction. The result, I believe, is that they begin very early on to acquire their own output. After several years of such communication experiences, the incorrect forms and structures fossilize.

Following this line of reasoning, I interpret Higgs and Clifford to mean that if we put students in the classroom into situations in which they are forced to produce forms and structures far beyond their acquired ability, there is a danger that they will do exactly what learners do in natural situations: reduce grammatical marking to a minimum and acquire their own output.[15]

Although the implication from Higgs' and Clifford's recommendation is that we teach and drill for mastery certain grammatical forms and structures before allowing free communication, NA attempts to handle this problem in a completely different way, through the use of "stages" of production requirements. Stage I, Comprehension, allows the students to begin the acquisition process, as well as adjust affectively to the instructor, the class, and the methodology, without requiring target language use. In Stage I, the input should contain large numbers of simple declarative and interrogative structures as a first approximation at acquisition. Input techniques used in Stage II, Early Speech, are those which encourage minimal target language use. The input continues to contain large numbers of simple structures among which are interspersed questions and comments to encourage simple responses. Most of these are not true communication devices, but rather like those used in caretaker-child interaction, are mostly question which ask the students to "display" knowledge of the target language. The five most common techniques[16] to elicit student responses in Stage II are:

1. Yes/No question: *Is there a dog behind the door?*
2. Either/or: *Is this man running or walking?*
3. Completion: *The woman is wearing a blue ...*
4. Lists: *What do you see in this picture*?
5. Simple interrogative: *Where is the book*?

Another Stage II activity used frequently in both NA and other communication-oriented methodologies is the open dialogue:

-Where are you going?

-To the..................

-Are you going to.................there?

-Yes (No), and then I'm going to..................

The advantage of the open dialogue technique is that it provides a framework so that students can produce language which is still in the process of being acquired, or in Higgs and Clifford words, "...encourage (the students) to use, albeit not freely, the target language in communicative tasks that involve language which is in actuality just beyond their productive competence"(1982:71).

To this point in this paper, I have referred to Krashen's concept of "comprehensible input." However, Krashen (1982) hypothesizes that one of the conditions that comprehensible input must meet for acquisition is that it be at what he calls the *i + 1* level, being the current acquired level of the students and *1* the "next step" in the acquisition process. While *i + 1* is difficult, if not impossible to define precisely, if taken in a general sense, it is very helpful to foreign language instructors. And in NA *i + 1* is taken very seriously. It is not enough that the input be comprehended. Both learners in natural acquisition environments and students in a foreign language class are able to develop listening strategies to comprehend the meaning of input which is far beyond their current *i + 1*. In the previous section I have just claimed that learner in a natural acquisition environment do just that and in addition acquire their own defective output. If, on the other hand, students are allowed to interact mostly with input which is just a bit beyond their current acquired level and at the same time are not forced to produce at levels far beyond their acquired level, as Higgs and Clifford suggest, then it may be possible to avoid massive fossilization in the foreign language class.

I would argue that the approaches most common in foreign language teaching today in the US, especially those using a grammatical syllabus, are, in Higgs' Clifford's term, "accuracy-first" courses. All of these courses, to my knowledge, ignore the possibility of production by stages and instructors insist on Stage II responses in complete sentences from the beginning of the course. The result is that students make a large number of production errors. This leads to the necessity of heavy use of direct, interruptive error correction by the instructor. Thus, my experience is that it is precisely in the grammar-oriented accuracy-first classes in which this forcing of advanced production takes place, not necessarily in communication-oriented ones and certainly not in NA.[17]

7. CONCLUSIONS

In summary then, I know of no evidence that communicative approaches need to include techniques or methods which would necessarily result in a terminal profile. Indeed, I have argued that the most critical characteristic of NA, allowing students to progress through stages of target language production, has the effect of mitigating against premature forced production which is thought by Higgs and Clifford to contribute to fossilization and in addition it obviates the necessity for large amounts of direct, interruptive error correction.

I do not believe, as Higgs and Clifford apparently do, that either the terminal profile or, more generally,fossilization is,or will become, a major problem in foreign language instruction in typical secondary schools, colleges and universities. The number of hours of language use in most programs is not enough to cause irreversible fossilization whether the approach be grammar-oriented or communication-oriented. Fossilization is normally found among adult learners who use the target language daily. Following Higgs' and Clifford's suggestions, I have claimed that the immediate trigger toward the terminal profile is the push of native speakers with whom the learners must interact for speech production before the learners have had sufficient comprehensible input to establish the acquisition of the necessary forms and structures.

My conclusion is that Higgs' and Clifford's proposal for two tracks of language instruction (communication-oriented and accuracy-oriented) is unwarranted. I know of no evidence that either a communication or an accuracy-first track of classroom instruction will condemn the student to a terminal profile or irreversible fossilization, although I personally find accuracy-first courses a bore for all but the very few linguistically-oriented students.. Nor should the instructor think that students in communicative appraches do not learn grammar: this is simply a misunderstanding of the role of communicative experiences in language instruction.

I have suggested that lack of knowledge of the target language grammar is not the main obstacle to native-like levels of adult second language acquisition and therefore Higgs' and Clifford's proposal for accuracy-oriented courses is not supported by the available data or evidence.

NOTES

1. Professors Higgs and Clifford (personal communication) both insist that this was not the intent of the article.

2. "Negative feedback" need not refer only to direct error correction, for example, non-comprehension by an interlocutor would also be a type of negative feedback. This position is appealing since it would appear to explain why some classroom learners speak with higher levels of accuracy than some natural acquirers. And since most native speakers hesitate to correct in any direct fashion the errors of adult L2 learners, it would explain their frequent low levels of fossilizaton. However, it does not explain the reverse situation: many natural learners do achieve highlevels of L2 proficiency without direct error correction by their interlocutors and many (perhaps even most) students in a classroom do not achieve high levels of accuracy even with direct or indirect error correction.

3. While I am entirely sympathetic to the idea of the importance of a peer group which contains native speakers of the target language in preventing fossilization, it is also true that interaction with native-speaking (monolingual?) peers in the target language will result in a large increase in comprehensible input and in output practice in communicative situations.

4. Clifford and Higgs (1982:67) mention that a terminal 1+ profile also is frequent. However, in my experience, in addition to terminal 1/1+ and 2/2+, there also exist terminal 3/3+ and 4/4+ profiles. Both Higgs and Clifford confirm that this is indeed the case (personal communications). And indeed, my position is identical to that of Selinker and Lamendella (1978) that at least some fossilization before reaching native norms applies to all adult L2 learners.

5. It is incorrect, of course, to attribute permanency of errors to a speaker with whom we are only casually conversing. However, I have several friends who use certain English structures incorrectly and have done so for many years. A good example is a Brazilian friend of mine who came to the United States at 20 years of age and who after 30 years in this country is English dominant. In her speech she still tends to omit certain direct object pronouns, a structure which is permitted by Brazilian Portuguese, but not by English.

6. In fact, there are no quantified data presented in this paper with regard to any of the proposed sources of fossilization, despite their repeated claims (for example, 1982:74, "the data suggest that ..." and "the data shows that..."). Closer to reality is the statement that "we have presented evidence based on experiential but consistent data ..." (1982:73). While I have nothing against the use of anecdotal evidence (and indeed, use it frequently in this paper), and do indeed count it as a particular kind of "data," the fact is that the use of the term "data," throughout the paper suggests that there are reportable results from some scientifically validated sample which was subjected to statistical analysis. This may indeed be the case, but those kinds of data do not appear anywhere in this paper. It is also quite difficult to determine how the data could be collected and analyzed. One would have to look at individuals who cannot improve past an FSI rating 2+ in order to see how many such cases fall into one of the three categories mentioned. However, if one would also have to examine an equal number of successful cases of language learners, in order to determine

how many of them also fit into the three categories proposed by Higgs and Clifford. (See also Van Patten 1986a for further discussion.)

7. Carroll (1975: 277) did find that "teacher competence in the foreign language--however acquired--makes a significant difference in student outcomes. "However, this does not mean that terminal profiles necessarily develop from teachers with low level language skills. (Indeed one of my first year Spanish teachers in high school did not, as it turned out later, know how to speak Spanish! The other spoke it quite fluently, but since Spanish was never spoken in the classroom, I did not find out that this was the case until years later).

8. See, for example, the extensive references to the Higgs and Clifford article in Omaggio (1986).

9. The problem with assessing the charge that the terminal syndrome is possible (common?) in four semesters of instruction (presumably using methodologies which do not stress grammatical accuracy from the beginning), is that so few college level students go on past the fourth semester to attempt professional levels (FSI 3). Indeed Carroll's study (Carroll 1967) cited by Higgs and Clifford (1982: 61) showed that most foreign language major (presumably with a great deal of work past the fourth semester) attain only a level 2/2 + and yet, most of us would not wish to claim that these students' speech has already fossilized.

10. For more detailed information on NA consult Terrell (1977, 1982a, 1982b, 1986); Krashen and Terrell (1983), Krashen et.al (1984). For examples of pedagogical materials see Terrell, et. al. (1986), Alvarez-Martini, et. al. (1984), and Chips, B. et. al. (1987). and beginning French and German college level texts to be published by Random House (January 1988).

11. I am so convinced that affective factors are the most important variable in success in language acquisition, that I would not be willing to teach a foreign language course which stressed grammatical accuracy from the very beginning of the course, much less one the goal of which was to teach "fundamental linguistic structures" (1982: 74) even if Higgs and Clifford were correct about terminal profiles. And although Higgs and Clifford state in their conclusions that "A curricular programmatic decision to strive for linguistic accuracy from the beginning of a program in no way excludes an approach or methodology in which the target language is used as the medium of instruction and for authentic, if relatively more constrained, communication," the historical reality of foreign language in the United States proves quite the opposite, i.e. that an emphasis on grammatical accuracy dominates everything in the course including texts, classroom activities, and exams to such an extent that even the students end up believing that acquiring a language is synonymous with the study of grammar.

12. See for example, Seliger's 1979 study of a/an and the non-correlation between conscious knowledge and accurate use.

13 See also Van Patten 1986b and 1987 for a more detailed discussion of error correction.

14. In my follow-up paper on fossilization, I attempt to explain why some learners in a natural acquisition environment are successful in avoiding fossilization and others are not.

15. There is some evidence that such a "classroom dialect" which is grammatically far short of the target model can indeed develop and perhaps fossilize. Such cases have been described in the "immersion" programs in Canada and in the US. However, it is not clear that they are due to the mechanism of forced high level production tasks. Some researchers suggest that the fossilization may result from a lack of interaction and identification with native speaking peers of the target language and perhaps other affective factors I will return to this possibility in my follow-up paper. (See also Selinker, Swain and Dumas 1975 and contrast with Harley and Swain 1984.)

16. Any of these display questions types can be followed up by and/or converted into what Michael Long (1985) calls referential questions through personalization: *Do you like to play tennis or golf?*

17. For example, most foreign language textbooks on the United States market today can be characterized as "cognitively" oriented and based on a grammatical syllabus. This is true even of the so-called "proficiency-oriented" texts in which accuracy and Stage III responses are required from the beginning.

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Teaching Reading in the Foreign Language Classroom*

Heidi Byrnes

I. INTRODUCTION

As foreign language professionals have become aware of the concept of proficiency, they have shown a tendency to equate it with communication, specifically oral communication. In addition, while focusing on the communicative event of speaking, they have favored only one of the roles performed by the participants, namely that of speakers, while essentially disregarding their role as listeners. This is not surprising. With the advent of the audiolingual approach, we as teachers have considered speaking the foremost goal of our instructional program, even if that goal was only vaguely defined in terms of specific learner outcomes. Likewise, our students typically indicate an ability to speak as the desired result for their foreign language studies. In general, then, if characteristics of listening and being a listener are discussed at all, it tends to be by default: only in so far as the ability to speak hinges on the ability to understand spoken material does listening merit attention.

However, equating teaching toward proficiency with an exclusive focus on speaking is erroneous. And, the second assumption, that communication through speaking should be the primary goal of foreign language instruction, has numerous limitations that are magnified by the American setting, and specifically, by American instructional realities.

First, with the exception of Spanish, perhaps French, and more recently some Asian languages, the opportunities for American students to engage in spoken communication with native speakers of the target language are relatively scarce. Even where they do occur, most of the speakers involved can handle English well enough to fulfill basic communicative tasks, thus further reducing the urgency for using

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the L2. Aware of the relatively limited opportunities for speaking, we must ask ourselves what opportunities for language use do exist for our learners.

Second, we have ample evidence that the vast majority of foreign language programs produce less then a useful level of spoken language ability in their participants. Deferring foreign language instruction until high school or even college not only misses optimal onset for this kind of learning activity but also limits the number of years available for it.

Intimately connected with ultimate level of attainment is the issue of skill maintenance or, put another way, skill loss. There can be no doubt that the real societal value of language teaching and language learning depends on the learners' long-term ability to use the contents of this learning. Unfortunately, not only is speaking ability more difficult to develop than ability in the other skill modalities. But the watershed level, that is, the level at which performance is relatively safe from loss, is high for speaking, certainly higher than what most programs can accomplish.

Finally, from a pedagogical perspective, we might want to consider the following: if speaking is indeed the stated goal of our instructional efforts -- and it is certainly a legitimate one -- might we not be able to improve our efficacy by an integrated, multi-pronged approach, rather than by emphasizing speaking in a one-dimensional way?

All of these points support the conclusion that language modes other than speaking, specifically reading, deserve a new assessment of their place within our instructional programs. To anticipate the thrust of my argument, the place for reading which I will advocate is not a result of simply finding more time for what we have done all along. Instead, rethinking a host of issues surrounding the activity of reading, its preconditions, occasions, purposes, and required processes and behavioral attributes, will result in a different understanding of the essential qualities of reading and, ultimately, will demand different pedagogical approaches.

II. PAST PRACTICES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING

Any reassessment of the role of reading in the foreign language class must consider key characteristics of past practices. In the initial stages of language learning, reading entered instruction primarily after materials had previously been covered orally. Essentially the written text, mostly in the form of dialogues, provided a permanent record ofthat earlier oral work, thus allowing the learners to go back to it for the purposes of ultimately improving their speaking ability. Reading in the foreign language classroom thus performed a purely ancillary pedagogical function and offered essentially none of the features that characterize native-language reading.

In this type of reading the possibility of learning vocabulary and structures, but particularly the hope for improved pronunciation through reading aloud, were among the staple assumptions. Furthermore, reading aloud by pronouncing the individual words with a reasonable degree of intelligibility and acceptability was taken to indicate not only learning of the language forms but also comprehension of their meaning. While reading a text with the appropriate intonation, stress, voice quality, sentence rhythm, and speed is indeed a strong indicator of comprehension (see the incorporation of reading aloud in the Goethe Institute OberstufenPrüfung), these complexly related suprasegmental features could scarcely be attended to in the beginning classroom where reading aloud was an important instructional activity. Thus, reading was not only perceived as torturous by students and teachers alike. It also neither had a real chance of benefiting the development of foreign language skills nor of resembling what reading was like in the native language.

Curiously enough, despite contrary evidence, we believed that reading skills were already thoroughly developed in the native language, that students were aware, consciously or subconsciously, of the strategies they employed during reading, and that these well-developed strategies and the students' awareness of them would directly and readily transfer into foreign language reading, though in a manner not further specified. These erroneous assumptions formed the basis of reading activities in advanced classes, where they regularly contributed to the high frustration levels students experienced when working with complex texts.

A further contradiction can be noted: while we implicitly appealed to native language reading strategies, we severely restricted the native language pallette for indicating reading comprehension. What counted as comprehension in the foreign language was displaying the ability to answer content questions following reading of the text, an activity which, in most cases, required little more than reading out aloud verbatim excerpts from the text.

Although other features could further describe past practices in reading those cited indicate an understanding of reading far removed from the dynamic, interactive, and negotiated quality of language and meaning that recent scholarship has emphasized. In the following I will present some of its key assumptions.

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF A COGNITIVE PROCESS-ORIENTED READING MODEL

Recent models of language emphasize that the essential role of language is to communicate meanings. While this seems no more than a repetition of the obvious, deeper reflection on how such communication does and can possibly come about uncovers substantial contradictions to many aspects of language teaching practice, particularly with respect to reading.

Most important among these is an acknowledgement of the social basis of language and of meaning. It is perhaps understandable if foreign language teachers are enamored with the richness and complexity of language forms. But we must remind ourselves from time to time that even the most elaborated system of language is incapable of transmitting any meanings at all unless such meanings are previously shared through other ways. This underlying shared basis of meaning is the network of social interactions within the language and culture group into which we are socialized informally and formally from the first day of our lives. Even the meanings of words for seemingly given phenomena, such as distance or time, are far from uniform across languages but, instead, are culturally mediated. Thus, in the end, it is not language per se that enables meanings. Rather, language serves as a shorthand way of calling up, in speaker and hearer, shared extralinguistic knowledge of the world. Assuming identical language background, communication will be the more successful the greater that shared knowledge basis is. Or, looking at it from another way, no amount of appropriate language use can guarantee communication if it is not supported by a significant overlap of previous knowledge of the world.

Comprehension in reading is thus the creative act of bringing to a text one's own background knowledge. On that basis, the reader is able to activate a certain frame of reference or meaning within which the communication is likely to take place. Understanding is not decoding individual words as they occur and piecing a global meaning together on their aggregate sum. Instead, it occurs as a matching process between anticipated meanings and meanings brought to mind through the shorthand of language.

How do these anticipated meanings come about? They are the result of extensive experience with a wide variety of settings, likely participants in these settings, roles they take on, goals they pursue, strategies they employ, and broad knowledge about our physical environment. This experience is summarized for us in schemata, frames or scripts, which we can draw up whole, such as a restaurant scene, a sales transaction, a wedding, a professional meeting or an act of apology. These schemata summarize for us key features of the communicative setting and it is within their frameworks that meanings are attached to specific events. Having available a rich and elaborated storehouse of schemata allows us to activate the highly efficient and accurate matching process described above, between our expectations and what actually occurs. The end product of that matching process is comprehension of new events.

However, it is not only our extralinguistic knowledge of the world that allows us to anticipate meanings. The language system, too, can be thought of as a highly predictable set of form/meaning occurrences. Though operative in any communication, this canon of expectations has been most formalized in the written form of a language, particularly in its most elaborate form, its literature. Language-specific expectations of genre, such as advertisement, newspaper report, anecdote, parable, fairy tale, travelogue, professional article, etc. greatly enhance our ability to anticipate what kind of text we are about to encounter, that is, what kinds of meanings are likely to be transmitted.

Thus, both extralinguistic and linguistic schemata serve to reduce the theoretically unlimited possibilities for meanings to a highly restricted set of favored possibilities, a restriction that makes effective and efficient communication possible at all.

Describing what takes place in reading comprehension from the standpoint of the processes involved, we could say that we impose top-down, schema-driven holistic meaning expectations on bottom-up, data-derived local meanings, adjusting our meaning expectations only if called upon to do so on the basis of unexpected specific linguistic data. Even here we show a remarkable predisposition to ignore specifics, unless they amount to massive evidence against our expectations. It is the efficiency in applying top-down as well as bottom-up processing in a manner that is appropriate to one's previous knowledge and to the communicative task at hand that marks the skilled reader.

IV. NATIVE-LANGUAGE READING AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING

Having arrived at a preliminary description of native language reading, we must now identify key features of foreign language reading. We can say that foreign language reading faces two formidable obstacles. On the one hand, the all-important precondition of shared background knowledge is far from given since we are dealing, by definition, with different cultural systems. On the other hand, the linguistic system, too, is not completely available to the learner. On both counts, then, foreign language reading seems headed for major obstacles: learners are trying to create meanings on the basis of defective underlying systems, a serious flaw in itself, but one that is dangerously magnified since interpretations on the basis of one system drive interpretations in the other.

Of the many important conclusions that can be drawn from this state of affairs I will single out four:

First, in whatever ways possible, we must encourage our students to draw on their knowledge of the world. This may take many diverse forms, from providing them with background information on a given topic in their native language, particularly if culture-specific matters are being treated, to purposely selecting, in the initial stages of learning, texts with few cultural idiosyncracies and a high reliance on shared human experience.

Second, we must make them aware of features of efficient reading, that is, what strategies are likely to be most effective for diverse reading tasks, and, if necessary, help them acquire these strategies and apply them. These strategies will be language-independent as well as language-dependent.

Third, we must help students approach all language forms, whether in the area of grammar or vocabulary, in terms of meaning.

And, finally, we must create near-authentic occasions for reading and near-authentic ways for indicating comprehension that reflect, as much as possible, the purposes which reading naturally serves all of us.

The remainder of my discussion pertains to ways of incorporating these concerns into foreign language reading instruction.

V. APPROACHING A TEXT

A. Pre-Reading and Preparation Stage

Recognizing the fact that a successful reader brings information to the text, it is imperative for us to help the second language reader activate previous knowledge, nonlinguistic as well as linguistic. On the one hand, this will alert students to information already in their heads so as to heighten their ability to predict and anticipate effectively within major schemata. On the other hand, it will bring to their attention or ease the retrieval of language forms pertinent to the topic.

Among activities suitable for this stage are:

- **Brainstorming**: Depending on the level of the class and the level of difficulty of the text this can be done in the native or the target language. In pair, group or whole class work students can brainstorm about what a given broad topic is likely to treat.

- **Visuals**: Very often visuals, either those accompanying the text or supportive materials, can help to create a focused discussion.

- **Predicting**: A variation of brainstorming is predicting, whereby a story title or subtitle, a headline in a newspaper or a table of contents in a book or a magazine can lead to activation of highly detailed expectations. This can even be taken as far as predicting the thrust of the argument of a paragraph on the basis of a first sentence.

- **Language preparation**: Certain texts may have a significant preponderance of certain structures or vocabulary items, such as passives or descriptive adjectives. Likewise, lexicon is typically clustered around a certain topic. While it is inappropriate to present this vocabulary in the standard vocabulary lists, it might be beneficial to help students gather some key terms as they are exploring the topic in their brainstorming session.

Aside from creating anticipation, the above activities gradually disabuse students of an unfortunate approach to reading that many have, namely that texts are essentially idiosyncratic amalgamations of individual sentences that happen to show up in a sequence that is not further motivated by any sensible and reasonable organizational structure, in terms of content and language use.

B. Skimming and Scanning Stage

Among the most debilitating notions of foreign language readers are the following:

(1) it is crucial for them to "know" every word in the text before they can effectively obtain its meaning;

(2) each part of the text is of equal importance and must be attended to with equal weight;

(3) we approach all the texts in the same fashion, regardless of the purposes we pursue in reading them in the first place.

The activities of skimming and scanning are intended to free learners from the fears they hold due to the above erroneous assumptions.

In skimming activities students are looking for the gist of a given text, scanning involves locating specific information which, typically, requires disregarding or, at least, downgrading information that is irrelevant for the given task. In either case students are encouraged to read for a purpose, to read on despite missing individual lexical items, and thus to free themselves from the inefficiency of a word-specific approach. This is not to downgrade the importance of knowing vocabulary, but to help students experience the interrelatedness of vocabulary within a text, ultimately enabling them to guess such missing vocabulary from context by going back between various parts of the text in order to obtain valid clues.

While the actual choice of skimming and scanning activities depends upon the content and purpose of the reading passage, students frequently perform such tasks as:

- reporting back on the specific information sought;
- identifying applicable text sources from a whole group of texts;
- grouping texts according to major categories;
- filling in charts;
- matching characters with traits or events;
- selecting or creating a title;
- making a judgment about actions or events, or the passage in general.

As with the preparatory activities skimming and scanning tasks may be done either in the native or the target language.

C. Intensive Reading and Decoding Stage

Once students have indicated an ability to approach texts holistically for a certain specified purpose they must learn to assign detailed meanings to specific sections. This can be done for the dual purpose of exploring the contents in greater depth, as well as for learning language forms through the experience of dealing with the text. In other words, reading in the foreign language classroom is both reading to learn about a variety of topics of interest and learning to read in a foreign language, that is, improving one's command of the language.

The degree to which either of these legitimate goals is pursued must be carefully guided by the teacher. Guidelines for selecting content activities are:

- The need to maintain, as much as possible, a convincing authenticity for the tasks students are to perform. In other words, teachers must constantly ask what real tasks one might be involved in which presuppose and thereby ascertain student comprehension of this particular text.

- The importance of offering students a variety of texts at different levels of difficulty, but with an awareness that it is more the tasks performed in conjunction with a given text than the text in and of itself that make a reading assignment difficult or manageable.

- The benefits of group work in complex skimming and scanning activities which allow students a measure of success even with texts that are significantly ahead of their current comfortable reading level.

Intensive reading for improving language ability might involve the following suggested activities:

- contextual guessing in a multiple choice or true/false format;
- finding new lexical items with a given meaning range;
- building up word families on the basis of derivations or compounding;
- listing synonyms and antonyms, or contrasts;
- finding cognates;
- clarifying reference within and between complex sentences;
- marking and categorizing sentence connectors.

D. Comprehension Check and Evaluation Stage

While the reading activities suggested already incorporate a strong evaluative component, it might be desirable to obtain more direct evidence for reading comprehension. This can be done formally or informally, with or without the text, in the foreign or in the target language. The most important consideration for any activities here is authenticity of task. While it is clear that native language reading outside the classroom practically never involves true/false testing or setting up of completion or matching exercises, the decision-making process native readers go through is not altogether dissimilar from that required in test formats such as: multiple-choice, true/false, completion, matching exercises, cloze procedures, filling in of charts, and summaries.

In any case, it is important to test a broad range of linguistic and processing strategies, at different levels of the form hierarchy (i.e. word, or diverse grammatical features) and at different levels of understanding (i.e. global, specific, accessing directly given information, reading between the lines, getting the tone and flavor of a text, clarifying author intent).

E. Transferring and Integrating Skills

As students learn to deal with a variety of texts and perform a variety of tasks they build up an inventory of diverse strategies, linguistic as well as non-linguistic. While the efficient native reader subconsciously applies these strategies appropriately, foreign language learners can often benefit by having them brought to their attention.

Among non-linguistic strategies, students tend to benefit most from an awareness of the power of schemata and of major cognitive patterns which are reflected in major organizational arrangements, among them chronological, cause and effect, from general to specific and vice versa, contrastive or adversial.

These organizational patterns tend to have specific linguistic realizations in function words which weave through an entire text in order to guide the reader through the line of argumentation. Students often disregard these "little words," thereby completely missing the substance of an argument although all other factual components seem to have been correctly interpreted. Knowledge of these organizational patterns and their specific linguistic repercussions is an essential and highly transferable skill for effective foreign language reading.

Still dealing with language forms, but on a lower level, we have a variety of strategies for contextual guessing and for the appropriate use of dictionaries.

Finally, students can show the depth of their text comprehension as well as their improved language skills by integrating what they have learned in a variety of ways in different language modalities (i.e. speaking, writing). Among them are:

- rewriting a narrative as a dialogue;
- rewriting a narrative from the perspective of another, perhaps minor character in the plot;
- acting out the story;
- giving an opinion on actions by various participants in the plot;
- offering a rebuttal to the main points;
- acting on the reading in a subsequent task;
- changing the ending of a story;
- discussing or debating an issue that was raised;
- changing the intention of a text, i.e. from informing to persuading or offering a polemic;
- presenting a summary, as in a short newscast.

All of these classroom teaching and testing approaches have in common an understanding of reading as a process that seeks to create meaning, not through automatic and passive decoding, but through involvement of the entire person who must draw on all cognitive and linguistic resources. With such involvement in a highly individual activity language learning for once has the chance of becoming the intellectually stimulating activity that we have always proclaimed but seldom allowed it to be.

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FACULTY EXCHANGE

INTERVIEW WITH ROBERT M. GAGNÉ

Lidia Woytak

In this issue Robert M. Gagné, world famous educator, shares his views about education and, specifically, foreign language instruction with readers of Dialog on Language Instruction.

In 1937, Gagné received an A.B. degree from Yale, where he studied German and French, and 3 years later a Ph. D. in psychology from Brown University. Subsequently, he taught psychology in Connecticut College for Women, Princeton and other universities. He also served as research director for Air Force Personnel and Training Research Center and was a Consultant for the Department of Defense. Since 1969 he has been professor of educational research at Florida State University in Tallahassee.

Professor Gagné is the author of two classic works *The Conditions of Learning* (4th ed., 1985) and with Briggs, *Principles of Instructional Design* (2nd ed., 1979). Gagné advocates a systems approach to instructional design. In his theoretical considerations, Gagné has been influenced by Benjamin Bloom and John Carroll, among others. Both Bloom and Carroll became proponents of the mastery learning concept. This concept has grown from a desirable feature of instruction to an instructional theory. According to this theory, the key factors influencing student achievement are: cognitive entry behaviors, affective entry characteristics and quality of instruction. In contrast to Bloom and Carroll, Gagné focused his research primarily on quality of instruction. Needs analysis (what needs to be done), task analysis (description of observable human behavior) and classification of objectives (types of learning outcome) constitute major elements in his studies on the quality of instruction which is known as instructional design theory.

During the 1987 Convention of the American Educational Research Association which took place in Washington, DC, Gagné presented a lecture titled: "Common Features of Instructional Design and Mastery Learning." In this invited address, Gagné made a distinction between internal learning processes and instruction. The latter he viewed as "a set of deliberately planned external events designed to support learning processes." Gagné also pointed out that although external events may influence or support internal processes, they do not cause them directly. Next, Gagné presented the usual sequence of instruction:

- gaining attention
- informing the learner of objectives
- stimulating prior learning
- presenting stimuli
- providing learning guidance
- eliciting performance
- giving informative feedback
- assessing performance
- enhancing retention and learning transfer

Further, Gagné hypothesized that: "Each of the events of instruction is capable of supporting internal processes of learning. Unless such support is provided by the learner's own processes of executive control, the presence of each event adds to the probability of successful achievement."

For the past several years, Professor Gagné has been emphasizing the concept of "automaticity." He believes that highly practiced skills can be performed automatically and thus free the attention for other learning. Gagné stated that automaticity can be achieved by practice. During his lecture in Washington, DC, Gagné also discussed the function of "schema," often considered as passive knowledge. According to him, this type of knowledge is used all the time in learning and thinking.

Following his lecture, Professor Gagné agreed to share his views on instructional design and the impact of his theory on foreign language education with readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

W. Could you describe your contribution to American curriculum? Especially, what are the new concepts which were introduced by you?

G. The concepts I have written about or done, that have contributed the most, are the five kinds of learning outcome, namely:

1. intellectual skills
2. verbal information
3. cognitive strategies
4. attitudes
5. motor skills

Some subjects of the curriculum are obviously almost entirely composed of intellectual skills. That is true of mathematics. Others are involved with intellectual skills, such as the rules of how you write poetry. Learning language, in the sense of learning many of the words in a metaphoric sense, goes far beyond learning of intellectual skills. I think that in any subject of the curriculum, it is desirable for the teacher to distinguish these varieties of learning outcome.

W. Could you comment on John Carrolls' monitor model, on his learning theory?

G. I find much of value - a very valuable set of ideas. It is, as he himself has pointed out, an econometric theory. Of all the variables that might affect school achievement, what are they and how do they interact? It is not the kind of theory I have worked with. There isn't a conflict, but it is a different kind of theory because it's saying what are all of the variables, and I ask a much narrower question. I ask what is meant by quality of instruction?

W. And Carroll goes beyond that?

G.. Yes, just as Bloom does. You see Bloom asks what are all the things that contribute to the outcome of achievement. Bloom acknowledges that his ideas are very close to those of Carroll's. For instance, he talks about the factors that precede going into the school.

W. Prior knowledge?

G. Well, also prior attitudes. Affective domain, in other words.

W. How would you respond to your critics who say that your theory is based on behavioristic theories, like Skinner's Stimulus-Response Theory?

G. I would say that my theory is based on cognitive learning theory and learning in terms of cognitive processes. I do not consider that this view is necessarily antithetical to behaviorism, because I find a most important aspect of behavioristic thinking is that theoretical concepts must be defined in terms of how they can be tested. That's an aspect of behaviorism which I think is very valuable. Now, as to the theory itself, I don't think my current instructional ideas are based upon what some people would call an associationistic view of learning. I don't think that's adequate any longer.

W. Do you see any major trends emerging in American curriculum?

G. Obviously in higher education there are some major trends. American education is full of remedial courses. One third of high school courses are devoted to remediation. That's a very inefficient and bad thing. Teaching kids in high school what they should have learned in the first grade, that's no good, that's bad. Additionally, it is much less apparent that students in higher education want to acquire what used to be called a liberal arts education, which makes them into educated people. There is a much greater emphasis these days on vocational themes. That is a change, I think, in American education. How does that change filter down? It hasn't particularly filtered down into the pre-college - I don't think it has. What's the change in pre-college education? The only change I see in pre-college education in the United States is a lack of rigor that I really think was there 50 years ago.

W. So when did the decline start?

G. Particularly after WWII.

W. And we haven't made progress since.

G. That's according to how you view it. Some people say, of course, we did. Personally, I think the quality has deteriorated in the sense of the standards of what we expect of students at each level. I think they have been vastly weakened.

W. Are the standards low or imprecise?

G. Low.

W. How would you encourage students in advanced education to learn more? How would you promote higher standards, what would be the steps?

G. Higher standards, I think, have to be established by the school board, or otherwise by the people who control schools in each community.

W. As an instructional designer, do you focus mostly on the learning process or teaching process?

G. Well, I personally have arrived at the teaching process through considering what are the requirements of the learner. So I always start with the learner and what has to be learned.

W. Where do you see the impact of your theory?

G. It's scattered - occasionally there are systematic programs set up on teaching intellectual skills. There is one in Ontario, Canada. I see it sometimes in military training, industrial training, and in some computer-aided instruction. Otherwise, I see its influence through teacher education programs.

W. To what extent does your theory apply to foreign language instruction?

G. I think that my theory or model of instruction obviously applies to foreign language instruction. The easiest thing for it to cover is, of course, the rules of grammar. Those are intellectual skills which, I would say, need to be learned and mastered in the way that I've described.

W. Is automaticity an important area in foreign language instruction?

G. Yes, it is in the area of rules of grammar. Grammar rules should be known and used automatically. I know that they can be because I've learned foreign languages that way myself.

W. How does one learn vocabulary?

G. I think I would call upon the notion of the schema. I've always been impressed with the technique that embeds the learning of new words in typical situations, such as what do you have to know if you are going to an airport or to a restaurant. Beyond that, I don't know that I have an awful lot to contribute except the basic notion of learning any new word meaning within a larger context. That's largely what I'm talking about here.

W. Should instruction start with discrete or holistic learning?

G. Well, it's difficult to say. It has to be a combination of both. It seems to me that learning grammatical rules has to be discrete. You simply have to present them discretely along with a number of examples. On the other hand, learning to carry on a conversation has to be done in a holistic manner. You have to get to this holistic context very soon in order to have learning of conversational language.

W. Could you comment on the difficulty of stating goals and objectives in the area of humanistic subjects such as teaching poetry and learning foreign languages? What tools do you prescribe to overcome the difficulty?

G. I don't see much difference in stating objectives for learning foreign languages and constructing poetry. The main difficulty of stating objectives obviously comes with declarative knowledge, which is the vast array of knowledge we store and never use directly. Nevertheless, this knowledge is used; some people call it "passive knowledge." It is used constantly because it is a source of metaphoric thinking. You know what is the outcome or the objective of learning such knowledge. I would say the objective is to store up a bunch of knowledge. You can, of course, specify the objective in the sense of how do I know that this person has some particular items of knowledge? My question would be not so precise. What is usually done in courses such as history is that the instructor says, "Okay, I want you to write an essay on a particular historical event." It isn't really viewed in terms of precisely defined objectives. I don't think it can be or should be. Nevertheless, I don't want people to forget that objectives are important to keep in mind. Anybody who is teaching, it seems to me, should have an idea of what the outcomes are supposed to be.

W. How would you go about stating goals and objectives for foreign language instruction? How would you deal with concepts which are not discrete in nature? It's easy to work with discrete concepts, but in foreign language students have to move simultaneously -- employ five to ten functions at one time.

G. In constructing a sentence or understanding a sentence a student has to engage in thinking. I would simply say the way to figure out what and how to teach a foreign language is to start with the aim, the goal, the objective, and say what does it take to do that? What are these ten functions that you speak of that the student must put together in his head when he is trying to construct a new sentence or carry on a new conversation? Then, having determined what they are, be sure the students learn them. I realize that is too simple, but that's the strategy anyway.

W. Basically a design has to be layed out?

G. I'd say so, yes, and by all means I would start with the ultimate goal, however you want to define that, and work backwards. What does it take in order for the student to do the things that lead to that goal?

W. In recent years in foreign language instruction there has been a strong movement towards communication. Teachers were pushing communication and sometimes students were not prepared to communicate right away because they weren't given enough rules and enough fundamentals to perform the task.

G. This is a real problem and it occurs in many subjects.

W. When we talk about higher level learning, it is sometimes difficult to achieve 100% mastery because objectives cannot be stated precisely.

G. Yes, I don't think they should be so stated.

W. So you don't think that 100% would apply?

G. On the contrary, it should be encouraged in every kind of creative advanced thinking. You have to get students to tackle a main problem-solving task. But in order to do that, you have to give them the tools to do it with, and there is no simple way of combining those things. You have to work for a continued combination. Just as is the case with first grader's reading, you have to work at the skills of identifying the sounds of the English language. At the same time, you can't stop there. You have to give them the opportunity to read. You have to give them exercises to read. The same thing occurs in learning foreign language. If one is going to be responding to foreign speakers, you have to give them practice in doing that, even if it is initially very simple. But fundamentally, they'll never be able to progress and do anything more complicated than that unless they learn some fundamentals. And the fundamentals are, of course, learning foreign language expressions, which I think is hard, and learning grammatical rules, which I think is easily undertaken.

W. What do you think about creating a national foreign language foundation?

G. We need it, that's one of the things that has changed in American education that you asked me about. There is now a great de-emphasis on learning a foreign language.

W. How was it when you went to school?

G. We expected people in high school to study at least one foreign language. Admittedly, we were learning to read and not to converse to any great extent. Nevertheless, we were studying a foreign language.

W. Thank you, Professor Gagné, for sharing your views with the readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

TEACHING WITHOUT TEXTS

Report on Class 04FR10W2187

René de Barros

The results of the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) in French have demonstrated that the graduating students possess, generally, adequate speaking and reading abilities. The areas of strength are an excellent knowledge of grammatical structures, an extensive vocabulary and the ability to express themselves effectively. However, there seem to be two main areas where the students show obvious weaknesses: pronunciation and listening comprehension. It is true that the French phonetic system is particularly difficult for anglophone students. Several French sounds do not exist in English. Nevertheless, there are other reasons for these weaknesses which are probably due to poor learning techniques.

Probable Causes

Foreign language students have a tendency to rely too much on reading the textbooks. Although the instructors advise them to listen to the pronunciation of the vocabulary, many students keep looking up every word they hear or copy each word written on the blackboard. The students obviously feel uncomfortable learning by listening only. Since French, like English, is not written phonetically, students retain the spelling of the new word, not its pronunciation, and will remember it according to their knowledge of the rules of reading English.

It follows that many of the students often neglect to listen in class and let their minds wander, confident that they will find the words or the rule that they have missed in the textbook at a later time. The excuse is usually that they can only learn if they "see things in writing." This complacency is reinforced by their confidence in their ability to learn by reading.

Finally, in the French Department, students are supposed to listen to tapes of the basic course almost every night at home. It is a difficult task for them and they have a hard time discriminating between sounds with which they are not familiar. In spite of the advice of the instructors, students look up the taped dialogue in their textbooks. Once more, an exercise which should be for listening comprehension only becomes one for reading comprehension. Obviously, some improvement is needed in listening techniques and some modification of the curriculum seems to be in order.

Possible Remedies

Less emphasis should be placed on textbooks, particularly at the beginning of the course. If students did not have the option of looking up new words that are given to them during class, they, most likely, would be forced to pay more attention to the instructor and concentrate more on listening as the only way to acquire new material. By eliminating the possibility of referring to the textbook at home, complacency would disappear. They would have to rely more on their auditory memory which would help train them in listening better and hence in discriminating better between sounds.

In the same vein, if they did not have access to the written text of the homework dialogue, they would have no recourse but to listen to the tape over and over again until they make sense out of it. In other words, the possibility of "cheating" would be eliminated. Everything seems to point to the benefit of eliminating all written texts at the beginning of the course and forcing the students to rely almost exclusively on their listening skills.

To remedy the situation, the French Department decided to conduct an experiment in which no textbooks were provided to the students for a period of two weeks.

Implementation of the Experiment

A special class of eight students started a course of nine and a half weeks at the beginning of October. The majority of the students were communication specialists averaging 34 years of age. Except for two students who had between one and two semesters of French in college some years before, the class did not have any previous formal study of a foreign language.

When they started, they were given no textbooks whatsoever, only tapes representing real life situations and oral exercises pertaining to the dialogue. All the material was presented in class almost exclusively orally. For the sake of pronunciation, some phonetic alphabet symbols were given and on rare occasions a French word was written on the blackboard. The students were strongly advised to tape the classes. In addition, they were given special tapes with the conjugation of the present tense of four basic verbs, including the auxiliaries. The basic interrogative expressions and the common prepositions were also on the tape. The tape was conceived as an oral dictionary, with written references to the counter of their tape recorder which was in fact the equivalent of an index in a book. The reference numbers allow the students to find whatever conjugation or expression they might be looking for, as well as to review or even learn what they had not heard or understood well.

During class, all new material relevant to the taped situation that they were supposed to listen to at night was given to them. The following day, an exercise exploiting the same tape was conducted to see how much they had understood and how to help them understand what they had not understood previously. Also additional situation tapes were given to the students for study in class. Emphasis was placed on perfect structures and on correct pronuncia-tion. After two weeks, textbooks were distributed with the exception of the one which contained the dialogues pertaining to their homework. It was thought that it would be better if the students did not have any written references about the oral material that they had to listen to at home. After eight weeks, the students took the French DLPT which is usually administered after 25 weeks of study. Out of a total of eight students the following results were achieved:

Levels of Proficiency

Skills	0	0+	0+ ↑	1	1 ↑	1+
Speaking	12.5% (1)	25% (2)	25%(2)	2 5 % (2)	0%	12.5%(1)
Listening	12.5%(1)	12.5%(1)	0%	62.5%(5)	0%	12.5%(1)

Only one student scored 0 in all the skills. It is to be noted that in a regular class of 25 weeks, he would have been dismissed at the end of the fourth week.

It is, of course, difficult to draw conclusions from such a small experiment, but it does seem to indicate an encouraging trend. First, the results in listening can be considered as very good, if one takes into consideration the short time involved. It appears that the students had improved their listening ability as well as their capability to discriminate between foreign sounds. A second point worth mentioning is the fact that there was a noted superiority in the pronunciation of the students of that class over students who were in more advanced classes. At this point, we must be careful not to assume that a definite amelioration was obtained over the other students, but it is our contention that this experiment should be continued with a normal class of 25 weeks and their DLPT results should be compared with the results of the previous classes.

Recommendations

Students should not be given any books for a period of at least two weeks--and perhaps for as long as four weeks. The instructors should present the material only orally with the help of tapes and visual aids. Emphasis should be put on correct pronunciation. After such a period of time, books should be given to the students except for the ones with the daily homework dialogue.

TRIVIAL PURSUIT AS A LANGUAGE-LEARNING GAME

William M. Bueler

Trivial Pursuit is a popular game of questions and answers on various aspects of life. Probably a majority of DLI students have played the original English version. It can also be used as a vehicle for language learning.

RULES

In the English version questions are on cards, with each card containing questions from color-coded categories: Geography (blue); Entertainment (pink); History (yellow); Art and Literature (brown); Science and Nature (green); Sports and Leisure (orange). The basic rules can be summarized as follows: the roll of a die will determine movement of each team's "token" (in the shape of a pie with six wedge-shaped sections) on the playing board. The board is in the shape of a wheel with six hubs and an outer rim containing 42 spaces. Each space has one of six colors (or a gray "roll again" space), with each color corresponding to one of the question categories. After the roll of the die determines which space a team's token is to land on, the other team will read the question for the color of that space. If the question is answered correctly, the team gets another turn, and this continues until a question is missed. There are six "wedge-awarding" spaces, one for each color. A team must land on each of these, and answer a question from its category, in order to move along one of the hubs to the center of the board for a final, game-winning question.

There are certain other refinements in the rules, but this summary will be sufficient for the present purpose, which is to show how the game can be adapted for language learning.

CHINESE TRIVIAL PURSUIT

I have developed a Chinese-version of the game, using the board but not the questions of the original game. The same approach should be usable for any language. The Chinese game seems most appropriate for students in the final phase of the basic course or the intermediate course, but in languages less difficult than Chinese such a game might be appropriate for use earlier in the basic course.

The primary task in preparing the game lies in writing the questions. A mere Chinese translation of the question cards of the original game did not seem appropriate, because the original questions are very much centered on American culture. It seemed better to write new questions with more focus on vocabulary and information of value in studying Chinese and learning about China. With this in mind I have changed the question categories to the following (with their colors):

1. Green:	China--History and Geography
2. Blue:	Asia and the Pacific
3. Brown:	U. S. --History and Geography
4. Orange:	Recent World History (Events since World War II)
5. Yellow:	Sports, Literature and Entertainment
6. Pink:	Miscellaneous

Let us look briefly at examples of the kinds of questions in each category. (NOTE: Questions are asked in Chinese. They must be answered in Chinese in complete sentences, but English pronunciation can be used for non-Chinese proper names.)

China--History and Geography

a. What is the most populous province of China?
(*Answer*: Sichuan. *Complete sentence answer*:
The most populous province in China is Sichuan.

b. What dynasty ruled China prior to the Qing Dynasty?
(Ming)

c. How far is Taiwan from the China Mainland:
1. 30 miles; 2. 100 miles;
3. 10 kilometers; 4. 70 kilometers.
(100 miles)

(NOTE: For geographic questions students cannot look at maps--unless on the front wall of the room, where not looking would be an unrealistic requirement.)

d. What is the date of China's National Day?
(Oct. 1)

e. In what year was Hong Kong ceded to Britain?
(1842)

f. In what century did Marco Polo visit China?
   (13th)

Asia and the Pacific

a. Japan is made up of islands; what is the largest island?
   (Honshu)
b. Which is largest: 1. Japan; 2. Outer Mongolia; 3.Pakistan; 4. Burma?
   (Outer Mongolia)
c. The Prime Minister of India, Indira Gandhi, was assassinated; what was her father's name?
   ([Jawaharlal] Nehru)
d. What is the northern of the two main islands of New Zealand called?
   (North Island)
e. Prior to becoming independent, what was Bangladesh known as?
   (East Pakistan)
f. What is the first day of winter in Australia?
   (June 21)

U.S.--History and Geography

a. In what state is America's highest waterfall?
   (California [Yosemite])
b. Why is Mrs. O'Leary's cow famous in American history?
   (Started Great Fire of Chicago in 1871 by kicking over a lamp)
c. Who was the Vice-Presidential candidate of the Democratic Party in 1920?
   (Franklin Delano Roosevelt)
d. What is the capital of Wyoming?
   (Cheyenne)
e. Who was the fifth President of the United States?
   (James Monroe)
f. What is the only place in the U.S. where you can be in four states at the same time? Name the states.
   (Four Corners: Arizona, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico)

Sports, Literature and Entertainment

a. America's most famous movie is called *Pião* in

Chinese. Who was the female lead?
(Vivien Leigh)

(NOTE: Students may guess that the movie is *Gone With the Wind*, or they may want to use the dictionary to look up **piaō** ¯theywill discover that it means *float* or *drift* and this may suggest *gone with the wind*.)

b. Who holds the world long jump record?
(Bob Beamon)

c. In 1969, John Wayne won an Oscar for Best Actor.
What was the movie he played in?
(True Grit)

d. There is an American novel translated as *Fènnùde Pútáo*in Chinese. Who is the author?
(John Steinbeck)

(NOTE: *Fènnù* means *anger, wrath; pútáo* means *grapes--Grapes of Wrath*)

e. An Olympic swimming champion became a famous moviestar. What was the swimmer's name and what movie role did he play?
(John Weismuller; Tarzan)

f. What company spends the most money on television advertising?
(Proctor and Gamble)

Miscellaneous

(NOTE: This category allows questions in science, math, non-U.S. geography, linguistics and other areas where it is useful for students to know how to say relatively simple, everyday things.)

a. How much is 42 divided by 6?
(7)

(NOTE: The obvious point here is simply to see if the students understand how the process of division is said in Chinese.)

b. What is the second largest fresh water lake in the world?
(Lake Victoria in Africa)

c. What is the largest planet in the solar system?
(Jupiter)

d. How many millimeters are there in a kilometer?
(One million)

e. What is the square root of 81?
(9)

f. How do you say *adjective* [use the English word] in Chinese?

(*xíngróngcí*)

PREPARATION

If a native-language instructor has any problem understanding the basic rules of play, it is a virtual certainty that every class will have at least one student who can explain them to the other students as well as the instructor. Thus, the only real preparation for this game is the writing of the questions. About 40 questions in each category should suffice. In a recent three-hour game between two intermediate classes, about 20 questions from each category were used (a total of about 120).

Most native-language instructors should have little difficulty writing questions about their own parts of the world. Suitable questions about U.S. history, sports, media, etc., may be more difficult. Good sources for questions could be the *World Almanac* and departmental Military Language Instructors--most of whom will probably have played the original English version of the game and should have a feel for what their peers would know.

Because of the relative unfamiliarity of most students with subject matter related to foreign countries, an overenthusiastic attempt to use the game to present little-known facts about a target language country is likely to be counterproductive. Students will simply lose interest if asked a string of questions about obscure Chinese poets, Russian industrial cities, French wines or Italian painters they have never heard of. Therefore, questions about target language countries should be easier than those about the U.S.

RULE CHANGES

Some new rules and minor rule changes from the original game seem appropriate:

1. In the Chinese game, the instructor reads all the questions from lists, rather than having the opposing teams read them from cards. This is a matter of convenience. However, there is no inherent reason why, with enough time, one could not prepare question cards for the student teams to read to their opponents, as in the original English game.

2. Since the questions sometimes have vocabulary the students have not studied, I allow them to use the dictionary. With Chinese, dictionary use is cumbersome and time-consuming, and could delay the game to the point of boredom for other participants, if each team tried to look up every word about which it might not feel totally confident. Therefore, I give them a time limit for dictionary use, which varies from one minute for basic course students to half a minute for more advanced students. During this time team members are able to look up more than one word, provided they decide beforehand which member will look up what.

3. Since the Chinese game moves more slowly than the English version, I have instituted another rule to help keep up the interest of teams when it is not their turn. If the team whose turn it is cannot answer the question, the other team (or the next in line if there are more than two) can answer it--except for true-false or multiple choice questions. If the second team answers correctly, it gets an extra roll of the die on its next turn. It can then choose between two rolls of the die in moving on the board. This doubles its chances of landing on a color it wants--either a wedge-awarding space or a color category in which it feels more confident of knowing the answer.

4. In order to avoid too long a string of successful answers by one team, thereby causing other teams to become impatient, I limit each team to three successive questions. If a team successfully answers the third one, it can get one extra roll on its next or a later turn, even though it must now turn over the die to the next team. Extra rolls of the die can be accumulated and saved for use when most helpful.

(NOTE: Rule changes 2, 3, and 4 above were not planned in advance. They were all ad hoc changes which emerged as problems developed during play. Other instructors in other languages might not use any of these; or they might well adopt different rules appropriate to different needs.)

CONCLUSION

Students have found the game both fun and helpful in vocabulary building. The game gives them a strong incentive to focus on previously unlearned words and their use, and this concentration is a boon to retention. From the instructors point of view, careful question selection can provide an excellent vehicle for introducing vocabulary in many areas, including geography, history, science, sports, entertainment, current events and military affairs.

COMING OF AGE
(TESOL CONFERENCE REPORT)

Deanna Tovar

The 1987 **Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages** (TESOL) Conference was held in Miami Beach, Florida from 21 - 25 April. Since TESOL celebrated its 21st year of existence, this years' theme was titled appropriately *Coming of Age*. The conference offered over 75 presentations each day which consisted of demonstrations, workshops, papers, colloquia, and informal discussion groups. In this report I will summarize some of the more salient sessions I attended.

A colloquium titled *Current Research on Second Language Learning Strategies* was presented by Rebecca Oxford, Anita Wenden, and Anna Uhl Chamot. Oxford (Center for Applied Linguistics) has been conducting large scale factor-analytic studies of the learning strategies of adult foreign language students. She began her presentation by defining learning strategies as techniques students use in acquiring language and emphasized that they are skills that can be taught. She further explained that students choose a particular learning strategy depending on the environment, their experience with the target language and other languages, general world knowledge, interest, and motivation.

Subsequently, Oxford discussed the reasons why learning strategies are important and key points from learning strategies research. She cited the following as reasons why learning strategies are important:

- Learning new strategies is related to successful language acquisition (learner training).
- Using appropriate learning strategies aids "active learning" (cognitive theory).
- Addressing learning strategies gives teachers an enhanced, expanded role.

Oxford also offered these key points from previous learning strategies research:

Teachers are generally unfamiliar with their students' learning strategies.

- Students do not use the widest range of learning strategies.

The speaker pointed out that strategy use is related to: the stage/level of language learning, attitude and expectations, setting, the nature of the task, personality and general learning style, as well as. other characteristics of the learner, the situation, and the language. As a conclusion to the presentation, Oxford described the learning strategies study she conducted which involved 1,200 first and second year language learners (French, Spanish, German, Russian, and Italian) in universities. The five factors discussed by Oxford in her learning strategies survey and examples of features of each factor follow:

Factor 1 - Formal, Rule-Related Practice (medium-high frequency)
. finds LI - L2 contrasts
. uses LI structural knowledge
. guesses meanings from situation
. infers by analogy
. finds cognates

Factor 2 - Functional Practice (low frequency)
. studies culture of language
. teaches peers
. imitates L2 speakers

Factor 3 - Resourceful, Independent Language Learning Techniques (low-medium frequency)
. summarizes L2 information
. outlines main ideas
. lists new information
. focuses on specifics
. highlights while reading
. drills words
. practices grammar
. takes notes in L2

Factor 4 - Standard Study Habits (medium-high frequency)
. prepares for class
. continues even when lesson is hard
. is not easily distracted
. answers questions mentally
. avoids rote memorization

Factor 5 - Input Elicitation (medium-high frequency)

. requests slower speech
. uses communication tricks
. uses synonyms
. uses background knowledge in conversation

Oxford concluded the discussion by listing 6 key variables affecting learning strategy use in the study:

1. motivation*
2. sex**
3. self-ratings of language proficiency
4. course
5. major
6. years of language learning

Oxford listed such future research themes as the effect of motivation on strategy choice, the learner's role in generating strategies, and the influence of sex differences on choice of learning strategies.

Double Cloze = Active Participation in a Conversation Class was a demonstration session which involved participants in completing a listening cloze (a song). Two versions of the same (printed) text with different words deleted were given to the participants. After listening to the song and filling in deletions, participants were asked to work in pairs and check their responses. This was an excellent activity for integrating listening, reading, speaking, writing, and culture. To enhance the effectiveness of this activity, teachers may select songs containing structural, lexical, or topical features relevant to the current lesson. Additionally, the use of music during this type of interactive comprehension technique may help to lower the affective filter.

Coaching: An Effective Follow-Up to Instructor Training was a workshop which focused on a California inservice project that incorporates a coaching component. The presenters began by describing the eight-hour core workshop/institute that is offered to new ESL teachers of adults. The training is conducted by experienced trainers who work in teams providing skills development and coaching guidance to participants. The skills development portion of the workshop includes lesson analysis and design and language teaching techniques. Coaching is then explained and demonstrated.

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*Motivation affected 4 out of 5 factors.

**Females chose to use more strategies, more intensely.

In peer coaching, instructors working in pairs observe and provide feedback to a peer as a follow-up to the training session. Mentor coaching, which is also included, is done by a more experienced teacher working with a new teacher. In both types of coaching, teachers follow three basic steps in the post-observation/feedback discussion.

1. **Create receptivity** - The teacher/observer begins by thanking the teacher/presenter for allowing the visit and points out positive features of the class

2. **Review the lesson** - The teacher/observer elicits the presenters' feelings about how the lesson was conducted and then reviews the techniques used during the lesson. It is during this step that feedback forms are used.

3. **Obtain commitment** - The two teachers discuss the areas where improvement is needed and decide which steps will be taken before the next observation. Finally, a time is agreed upon for follow-up observation.

The ideas presented in this workshop may contribute to the implementation of the team teaching concept at DLIFLC.

Using Dialog Journals in Teacher Training was the title of a paper which analyzed dialogue journals written by a class of ESL and bilingual teachers to record reactions to assigned readings and comment on new techniques they tried. Teacher's professional growth, teacher/instructor relationships, understanding and application of reading assignments, and use of journals to individualize instruction were described.

The idea of using journals in teacher training stems from the use of journals in language classrooms where students are asked to communicate in writing with the teacher. Students' comments may deal with the course of instruction, methods, particular problems and successes, etc.

Interactive Language Teaching in the Participatory Classroom was presented by Wilga Rivers, Peter Strevens, Gail Robinson and others. Rivers (Harvard University) began the presentation with the following opening, "Interaction is a process by which students can be motivated to communicate." She asked attendees to examine the roles of imagination, innovation, and dynamism in their language classrooms. Finally, Rivers urged teachers to recognize that their students are full of ideas and can recommend topics that will hold their interest. Rivers' final comments regarding the participatory classroom were, "What we have to learn to do, we learn by doing.'

Strevens (Chairman of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language) suggested that, in a participatory classroom, students must have problems to solve, tasks to carry out, and projects to do together. He also believes that these activities must be of interest to the students. Strevens recommended that teachers make inventories of topics in which students are interested and use these inventories as a basis for activities.

Achieving Grammatical Accuracy: Advice for ESL/EFL Students was a colloquium which included Marianne Celce-Murcia, Diane Larsen-Freeman, and Tracy Terrell. This session explored the usefulness of direct teaching of grammar and responsibilities students have for their own language learning.

Celce-Murcia, (University of California, Los Angeles) discussed the role of grammar in English for academic purposes courses and pointed out that feedback and correction are necessary. She discussed two grammar correction strategies: interview analysis for spoken language and reformulation for written language.

Interview analysis was described as a one-on-one tutorial in which the student and teacher spend 30-40 minutes discussing a topic. The discussion is recorded and transcribed by the student. An optional follow-up writing activity asks students to use the transcript as the basis for a written paper. This assignment is then turned in to the teacher who reviews the paper for grammatical accuracy and returns it to the student. Celce-Murcia stated that experimentation with this technique at UCLA has demonstrated significant student improvement.

Reformulation was then described as a correction strategy for written grammar. In this technique, developed by A. Cohen, non-native speakers produce a text which is subsequently rewritten by a native speaker without changing the meaning/intention. A classroom adaptation of the strategy requires the teacher to list phrases from the composition that need reformulation and then to ask the student to rewrite the composition. In the concluding remarks regarding grammar correction, Celce-Murcia suggested language teachers should:

- begin with student products;
- teach grammar in context;
- give students focused feedback so students learn to identify and correct their own errors.

Diane Larsen-Freeman (School for International Training), stated that "teaching grammar makes sense," especially since some language learners are unsuccessful if they are not given formal instruction in syntax. She cited fossilization as yet another reason for teaching grammar and referenced the work of Carlos Yorio. She teaches grammar based on her response to the question: "What can I give my students that they can't get elsewhere?" and referred to a Krashen article which deals with the essential contributions of formal instruction. As contributing factors, she cited isolation of grammar rules and the possibility of error correction. Both factors, according to Larsen-Freeman, provide the proper focus to heighten students' awareness of what they need to work on. She concluded by suggesting that teachers give students a reason to communicate in a game-like way.

Tracy D. Terrell (University of California, San Diego) described the standard definition of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the following manner:

- Input "feeds" Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which results in acquisition.
- Affective factors act as a filter to keep input from LAD.
- Conscious grammatical knowledge is used as a monitor to edit and make minor corrections in output.
- Input must be comprehensible *i + 1* and learner must attend to the message rather than the form.
- Output functions primarily to generate more input, the only necessary and sufficient factor needed to account for L2 acquisition.

Further, Terrell suggested various speculative hypotheses which he cautioned "await future evidence from research for revision and confirmation/disconfirmation." According to him;

1. Input interacts with general cognitive learning abilities to produce acquisition (i.e., no special LAD is assumed).
2. Affective factors act as positive motivators to seek out and attend to input (cf instrumental, integrative, and assimilative motivation).
3. Conscious grammatical knowledge has a variety of functions in addition to serving as the source for the conscious editing process.
4. Interaction with comprehensible input far above current *i*, with the learner attending only to message, develops listening strategies and the acquisition of monomorphemic

words, but results in the non-acquisition of current grammatical patterns. Comprehensible input at *i + 1* allows the possibility of focus on both meaning and form.
5. The result of acquisition is defined as the ability to comprehend and produce the target language.

Terrell indicated that the level of L2 acquisition is directly related to the level and type of positive motivation of the learner and to the level of interaction with comprehensible input in communicative situations. Complete acquisition occurs only in the case of strong assimilative motivation and ample opportunities for comprehensible input and self expression in the target language.

Terrell identified the following functions of grammar in "Standard SLA theory:"

1. To monitor written output or prepared speech.
2. To make minor corrections in oral output when speaking (optimal monitors). Additionally, he presented the following grammar functions as his "modifications:"
3. To increase motivation of some grammar-oriented adult learners.
4. To decrease the amount of "noise" and "distractions" in the input.
5. To make a particular grammatical form or pattern more salient in the input and therefore easier to attend to.
6. To modify the form of the input to provide for more opportunities to bind/access particular forms or patterns.
7. To call attention to errors which may be self-corrected with the monitor.
8. To systematize forms or patterns allowing the learner to understand and produce forms or patterns which have not yet been acquired.

Terrell stated that "learning" does play an important role in the study of language and provided the following as general reasons to "teach grammar:"

1. Students want to be taught grammar; not teaching students grammar can raise their filters.
2. Grammar can make input more comprehensible.
3. A knowledge of grammar may help the student organize the input.

Terrell cautioned that if students are forced to work at very high levels of input, they will develop strategic input, but this may not aid their output. His concluding remarks had to do with correction. He suggested that teachers should try to get students to self-correct and that correction be done judiciously.

Promoting Fluency Through Problem-Solving and Values-Clarification Activities demonstrated how these types of activities can promote fluency and communication skills in the classroom. Participants were asked to engage in a variety of activities and then discuss their experiences using problem-solving and values-clarification activities. Some examples of activities presented at the session were:

1. "Dear Abby" problem situations.
2. Student/teacher invented problems (based on students level of proficiency) for students to discuss and solve.
3. Proverbs - common proverbs are written down on slips of paper which are cut in half and mixed. Students working in groups, must piece them together.
4. Values Survey Sheet - a. Students list a set of human ideals and are asked to choose, in groups, the 5 most desired ideals in life.

Of the 4 plenary sessions offered at TESOL this year, one of the most relevant plenary sessions was presented by Peter Strevens who described experiential learning and teaching as one of the peaks of excellence in language instruction. Strevens also provided a set of principles for effective language teaching which were developed by the Council of Europe. Those principles indicate that:

(1) Language teaching should be learner centered.
(2) Learning should be life-related.
(3) Learning and teaching should be participatory.
(4) Learning and teaching should be based on the concept of language for communication and thus on the communicative approach.
(5) Learning should be "by doing."
(6) As far as possible, language learning and teaching should be available throughout the citizen's life.

Visiting the publishers' exhibits proved to be a fruitful experience because I was able to examine numerous reference works and texts dealing with ESL/EFL methodology appropriate for teacher education and classroom use. Following is a list and brief description of texts I reviewed at the TESOL publishers' exhibits:

- *Methodology in TESOL - A Book of Readings* edited by Michael Long and Jack C. Richards (Newbury House, 1987). The anthology represents a variety of viewpoints on central topics in ESL/EFL.

- *The Non-Stop Discussion Workbook* by George Rooks (Newbury House, 1981). This book presents thirty problem-solving situations/dilemmas designed to generate discussions in which the students do almost all of the talking. The activities are within level range 2 and above on the proficiency scale and work well in small groups so that students can discuss, analyze, and solve the problem. Although the book is designed for intermediate and advanced students of English, it can be adapted to foreign language teaching.

- *The ETS Oral Proficiency Kit*, prepared by Judith Liskin-Gasparro, (Heinle & Heinle in cooperation with ETS, 1987) consists of a booklet which contains background information about the oral interview and the rating scale, information on how the interview is conducted, and discussion of practical applications for the classroom. Cassette tapes of oral proficiency interviews in French, German, Spanish, and ESL are also available and the recorded interviews are discussed in the booklet.

- *Teaching English With Video* (Longman Handbooks for Language Teachers, 1985) is an introduction and guide to the many uses of video in language teaching. The book discusses hardware and software, video use in the classroom, the role of video in teacher training, and self-access by the learner to video.

- *The Media: Catalysts for Communicative Language Learning* by Joyce Penfield (Addison-Wesley, 1987) shows language teachers how to adapt media resources used by native speakers in foreign language instruction.

There was a lot of enthusiasm in the sessions I attended and while it is impossible for me to describe all the presentations, I hope I have in some way been able to share some of the exciting ideas I was exposed to at this worthwhile conference.

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REVIEWS

Language Competence: Implications for National Security.
By Kurt E. Mueller.
New York, NY: Praeger.
1986. Pp 168. $9.95.

In this book Kurt Mueller examines "historical documents to determine the Armed Forces' need for language skills." His excellent credentials--broad experience in the academic world as well as stints at the Defense Language Institute and the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College--recommend his work to the student of national security affairs.

The book consists of six chapters. The first, an introduction, is a simple argument for language competence in which the author observes that ". . . no other profession outside that of diplomacy is as concerned with the relationship between a nation and its neighbors as is the military." The rest of the book is devoted to a historical study of the linguistic aspect of that concern.

The second chapter, "The View from Within: Defense Looks at its Own Language Needs," cites numerous studies--some antedating World War I--of the military requirements for language skills. The mere fact that so many studies have been made, all resulting in the same conclusion, begs the question--Why hasn't the situation been corrected? Mueller cites several observations by Ken Booth which provide a partial answer: "strategists as a body are remarkably incurious about the character of their enemies and allies," "threat assessment is ...seriously vulnerable to ethnocentric distortion," and "strategists as a profession have not accommodated, in deed or word, to the problems of conflict and stability in a multicultural world."

The third chapter, "Historical Need for Language Skills," draws data from every major military conflict of this century. The references to the language problems in the Korean conflict demonstrate the full extent and complexity of language impact on military operations. The linguistic requirements of a successful drive through the Soviet Empire are not alluded to, but they would be many times greater than the tragic problem encountered in Korea. In this century we have waged war only as an ally and only against alliances. The apparent political desirability of having even a token presence of foreign armies allied with us on the battlefield places an additional requirement on planners to provide an adequate number of trained linguists. The issue is greatly complicated when one reflects on the changing political climates and military fortunes which often affect the make-up of alliances.

The fourth chapter describes how we have historically met our language needs focusing primarily on World War II. The reader should note that language training was undertaken *after* the outbreak of hostilities in all of the major wars of this century. To assume that future conflict will proceed at a slow enough pace to allow us to learn to communicate with and understand both our friends and our foes may be unwise.

The fifth chapter is devoted to "Academic - Military Cooperation." The key portion of this chapter is the following: "An honest appraisal of any reliance on academic institutions to meet military language needs, though, has to recognize the shortcomings of current practices in schools and colleges. They simply do not devote sufficient time to developing language skills to make their graduates immediately employable in a position requiring language competence." The author suggests that the implementation of proficiency-based curricula would contribute to greater competence. However, before any reliance can be placed on the academic community to assist in the defense of their country, the hostility with which the academic subculture views the military subculture must somehow be dissipated.

In the sixth chapter, "What We Need to Progress," Mueller makes several suggestions to solve our problem: that Army officers acquire language skill during their undergraduate education, that the Department of the Army develop a policy of area orientation for officers, that cultural training be undertaken, that language problems be a part of all war games, that more attention be given to language maintenance for officers, that language assets be identified, that better materials be provided and, finally, that language skills in the Reserve be improved.

I feel that Mueller's book could be read profitably by all those who are interested in the general topic. Mueller does succeed in providing a historical framework for the problem. However, a more complete analysis is required in order to institute the changes which would provide the necessary quantity and quality of linguists. The single most glaring fault with the study is that it ignores the enlisted members of the military profession. The bulk of the linguist positions and the bulk of the training load of the Defense Language Institute (DLI) are restricted to the enlisted ranks, i.e. non-officer. The second and perhaps even greater omission is the lack of any discussion on the problem of retaining language trained individuals. These two items are more intertwined than they might seem.

Language Competence should be required reading for the defense and intelligence establishment and all leaders in the military language field. A careful reading of this book, supplemented by discussions with linguists in the field (that is to say, with enlisted personnel) could produce positive results with very little real expenditure of funds.

John B. Goodrick

Editor's Note: Dr Mueller was an Instructor in the German Department at DLIFLC and was a staff member with the Modern Language Association. He is currently a key staff member with the National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies. He has also been an Army Reserve Officer for many years.

A Thousand and One Nights,
retold in Arabic
by Michel Nicola.
Book 1. Troy, MI:
International Book Center,
1985. Pp 54. $3.95.

In view of modern theories of language learning/acquisition, extracurricular material not assigned for any class but perused only for pleasure takes on special importance, for it is in such perusal that the "affective filter" is at its lowest. Preferably, such material would be: (1) of interest to adult foreign language students and (2) not be too far above or below their level of competence in the language.

In Arabic, additional reading material for beginners is scarce or nonexistent. This booklet is a handwritten version of the famous *One Thousand and One Nights*, prepared specifically for English speaking students of Arabic. Book I is the first of a series and includes the story of how the fabled Shehrazade came to entertain the king with her tales, plus the stories she told him in the first nine nights.

Clearly, the subject is of adult interest. Translations of the *Nights* have fascinated Western readers, both children and adults, for centuries. Moreover, the book is arranged in such a way as to accommodate beginning readers of a variety of levels of competence. It is in three parts of increasing difficulty, and each part is followed by a "glossary" containing all the words and idioms in that and the preceding parts. Thus, the readers are neither left to their own devices in trying to unravel the text, nor forced to rely on whatever course they may happen to be taking. They can choose to read it independently, and for no other reason than that it is fun.

On the negative side, the most serious shortcoming is probably the total lack of any cultural notes about the book or parts of it. A frequent comment made by students when they have grasped a story is "weird." The experience is a sort of cultural shock. Some historical and cultural background notes plus some explanations of such beings as Ifrits and Jinnis would have been very useful in preparing the reader for the enchanted atmosphere of the *Nights*.

Despite these and a few other minor shortcomings, many students have read Book I of *A Thousand and One Nights* with considerable interest and are awaiting the appearance of Book 2 with anticipation.

Michel Nasr

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NEWS AND VIEWS

Letter From a DLIFLC Graduate

Dear Editor:

Writing the review of Dr. Mueller's book (see *Review* Section) encouraged me to supplement it with the following opinion. None of the examples taken from military studies of the language problem seem to concern themselves with enlisted linguists and their problems. Typically, a soldier enlists in the defense of his country, is sent to basic training, and then goes on for further training in some military specialty. This is how most of the students of DLIFLC get there. Upon completion of their training, they are sent on a utilization tour. When they complete their tour, they have the option of returning to civilian life or making a career commitment. A disappointingly small number exercise their option to reenlist. This is one of the weakest links in the training of linguists. All authorities agree that the training of a good linguist requires years of hard work. The military cannot continue the cycle of training a soldier who leaves after language study, causing the need to recruit and train another, and the process repeats itself again and again. The question of training enough linguists would disappear if we would only make a commitment to train and retain the ones who have already spent four years starting a career.

One of the most important aspects of human nature that a leader or a manager must never forget is that all humans desire to excel and to enjoy the success that is the reward of hard labor. The military linguist must be motivated, or, at the very least, must not have his self-motivation killed. To train an individual for a year in the Polish language, send him off to Fort Carson to wash tanks accomplishes several things. First, it kills any desire on the part of the individual to continue working on his language and mocks the effort already expended. Second, it deprives the country of the opportunity to develop a novice into a true professional. Third, it is a waste of the money already expended, and it will cause more money to be expended for training additional novices to the minimal level. Fourth, the tanks are clean--undoubtedly a necessity, but at this price? In the military it is too easy to blame the commander for his faults and the failures of his subordinates. If two of the suggestions Dr. Mueller makes were adopted, this sorry scenario might be avoided--

the establishment of area orientation for officers and the inclusion of language problems as part of war games. An officer who has personally sat through the endless pattern drills and irregular verb exercises at DLIFLC would be far more likely to appreciate the need for continuous language training, as well as the need for common military skills. Higher ranking officers who failed a field problem or were bested in a war game due to the lack of sufficiently trained linguists would be far more insistent upon adequate retention and training. If the marksmanship of our artillery personnel is as poor as our linguistic capabilities, then the defense of the nation requires much larger artillery shells than are currently available.

I believe that the problem of having sufficient numbers of high quality linguists in all languages available to the military requires several innovations. First, existing regulations concerning language maintenance must be complied with on the part of all concerned, most particularly the commanders. Second, the first tour should be considered an apprenticeship and it should be followed with an extensive follow-up course. Third, all linguists should be made to understand that their complete education includes at a minimum a bachelor's degree, and in the case of higher NCO's and Warrants, a master's degree. Fourth, unit commanders must at all times bear in mind that their support and leadership is required to accomplish training objectives. Fifth, status and recognition must be conferred upon the linguist soldier. Motivating the linguist does not require more money or even rank but rather simple recognition of his needs and minimal support required to be a success. Such recognition and status would guarantee that linguists would no longer be insulted away from the military service of their country.

No discussion of the military language program can leave unmentioned the reserve forces. Most military linguists are reservists, not active duty personnel. There is currently a lack of coherent training programs for these individuals, and it is upon them that the bulk of the linguistic work will fall in the event of mobilization. In the fifties and early sixties there was a popular phrase "more bang for the buck." If the military managers would agree to pay for the tuition and books for relevant courses at local educational institutions, the reservists would view this not as financial assistance, but rather as recognition of their worth and the effort that excellence requires. This would produce a lot of bang for very small bucks.

Sincerely,

John B. Goodrick
Bremerton, WA

Editor's Note: MAJ. Albert E. Lewis, Assistant Dean of the School of Romance Languages, confirms that Goodrick's comments on training and utilization are generally true but adds that these problems are extremely complex and are being addressed by the Services. He also cites better opportunities in the civilian sector as a major reason many leave the Service. Additionally, he notes improvement in requirements for officers and NCOs to prove language maintenance annually through the DLPT.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE MATERIALS AT CAL

The *SURVEY of Materials for the Study of the Uncommonly Taught Languages* is an annotated bibliography of basic tools of access which includes information on all modern languages whenever adequate materials for studying them are located. Information on standard English, French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish is not included.

The bibliography was published in 1976 in eight fascicles, with the arrangement of languages and language groups within the following divisions: Western Europe/Pidgins and Creoles (European-based); Eastern Europe and Soviet Union; The Middle East and North Africa; South Asia; Eastern Asia; Sub-Saharan Africa; Southeast Asia and the Pacific; North, Central and South America.

The primary emphasis of the collected material is for use by the adult learner whose native language is English, although some materials of interest mainly to the teacher, the specialist and/or the textbook writer have been incorporated. Under grammars, texts have been added which require knowledge of modern linguistic terminology. Books in print and available commercially are included, as well as those out of print, forthcoming or of limited accessibility.

In the case of languages for which there appear to be no adequate or recent texts in English, entries include older books, technical studies, and books in foreign languages. Pre-1940 bilingual dictionaries are listed when they apparently constitute the sole or major source for the language, or when they have appeared as reprints.

The 1976 edition was updated with a supplementary volume in 1983. Both publications are available through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. For further information, please contact the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics at the CAL address listed below.

The *Survey* was expanded in 1983 to include a broader scope of information. The bibliography was moved from a partially automated system to a computerized one. In addition, the database is now expanding to include information on available human resources, including both trained teachers and researchers; references to and descriptive information on testing and evaluation instruments available or under development in these languages; and similar information on computer-assisted instructional programs or other higher technology-using approaches to the less commonly taught languages. The database also includes a file identifying publishers and distributors in the U.S. (primarily) and abroad who are able to supply print and computer assisted instructional material to the general public.

This project is funded by the U.S. Department of Education.

This project is highly dependent on the continued efforts of personnel involved in the teaching, development of materials and research in the less commonly taught languages, and staff of the *Survey* welcome any information which may inform the database. For further information contact:

Dora Johnson
Project Director

Survey of Materials for the
Study of the Uncommonly
Taught Languages
Center for Applied
Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

Telephone: (202) 429-9292

FORTHCOMING MEETINGS 1987/1988

S27-30 December. **Modern Language Association Conference**; San Francisco, CA. MLA; 10 Astor Pl.; New York, NY 10003.

27-30 December. **Linguistic Society of America**; 1325 18th Street, N.W., Suite 211, Washington, DC 20036. San Francisco, CA.

28-30 December. **The American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages** (AAASS affiliate); San Francisco, CA. Sanford Couch, Secretary-Treasurer, AATSEEL, Foreign Languages Department, Arizona State University; Tempe, AZ 85287.

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19-21 February. **Society for Cross Cultural Research**; El Paso, TX. Alice Schlegel, Program Chair, Department of Anthropology, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721.

5-9 April. **American Educational Research Association**; New Orleans, LA. 1230 17th Street, NW. Washington, DC 20036.

7-10 April. **Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**; New York; Northeast Conference, Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753.

13-16 April. **Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages** (in conjunction with the Colorado Congress of Language Teachers and Southwest Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages); Denver. Gerard L. Ervin, Department of Slavics, 232 Cunz Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus, OH 43210.

13-16 April. **Southwest Conference on Language Teaching** (in conjunction with Colorado Congress of Language Teachers and Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages); Denver. Alan Meredith, Brigham Young University, 4038 JKHB, Provo, UT 84602.

CONTRIBUTORS

Articles

Tracy David Terrell (Ph.D.,University of Texas at Austin) is a Professor of Linguistics and Director of the Language Program at the University of California, San Diego. He has published extensively in Spanish dialectology and sociolinguistics. He is known to language teachers for the development of the Natural Approach, an input-based methodology used by both foreign language teachers and colleagues in TESOL.

Heidi Byrnes (Ph.D., Georgetown University, 1979) is Associate Professor of German at Georgetown University. She is a frequent presenter at professional meetings and has published in numerous professional journals with the emphasis on incorporating insights from second language acquisition research into teaching practice. She is a certified tester and master trainer for the ACTFL/ETS method of assessing oral proficiency in German.

Faculty Exchange

René de Barros (M.A., Ph.D. Candidate, University of Chicago) is Instructor of French and Spanish, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute.

William M. Bueler (M..A., University of Colorado) is Instructor of Chinese Mandarin, School of Asian Languages, Defense Language Institute.

Deanna Tovar (M.A., University of San Francisco) is a teacher trainer in the Faculty and Staff Development Division, Defense Language Institute. She also serves as an ACTFL oral proficiency tester trainer.

Reviews

John B. Goodrick (B.A., Portland State University) is a DLIFLC graduate and member of the U.S. Army Reserve.

Michel Nasr (American University of Beirut) is course writer and Instructor of Arabic School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute. Currently he is enrolled in the MATFL Program (Master of Arts in Teaching Foreign Languages) at the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

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INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS (PROVISIONAL)

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields: (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: REFERENCES. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrate format for bibliographic entries.

Harris, David P. 1969. *Testing English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Dulay, Heidi and Marina Burt. 1974. "Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition." *TESOL Quarterly* 16 (1):93-95.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g. (Jones 1982:235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Footnotes should be used for substantive information only and each footnote should be typed directly below the line to which it refers. They should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript and each one should be set off from the text with a horizontal line above and a horizontal line below.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids, or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1 1/4 inch on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the new word processors (Xerox Star) which are now available in all Schools and Directorates. When the Xerox Star is used authors should submit both a floppy disc and a hard copy (paper) of the manuscript.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* or to the "Guidelines for the Preparation of Manuscripts" which appears annually in the *TESOL Quarterly*.

Review Process

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A New Taxonomy of Second Language Learning Strategies

Rebecca Oxford-Carpenter
The Annenberg School of Communications

Recently, learning strategies and other attributes of the learner have begun to gain widespread attention. (See Oxford-Carpenter, 1985, for a review of research in L2 learning strategies). Learning strategies are steps taken by the learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, or use of information (O'Malley, Russo, & Chamot, 1983). Teaching strategies, often called instructional techniques, are actions taken by the teacher to structure and present information in a way that will help students learn (Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, & Russo, 1983). Except for some research on mnemonics and visual imagery, previous educational research has focused mainly on teaching strategies rather than on learning strategies, or on other attributes of the learner. Consequently, responsibility for learning has rested more with the teacher than with the learner. The underlying assumption appears to have been that the manner in which the teacher instructs is more relevant to learning than what the learner does to acquire knowledge. In actuality, however, teaching strategies are simply more observable.

The comparative overemphasis on teaching strategies has been evident in research on general academic skills and in studies of second language (L2) learning, as noted by Dansereau (1978) and Rubin (1981).

Special thanks belong to Mildred Cuevas, who provided excellent assistance in the literature review and made suggestions for revising the first version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The author also thanks Gnarity Penn, formerly of the Center for Applied Linguistics, for her contribution to the narrative in the area of semantic versus syntactic strategies. Ideas for the taxonomy were derived from a wide variety of documents in learning strategies, most notably Rubin (1981) and Russo and Manzanares (1985).

Only in the last decade has a sufficiently strong case been made for the importance of learning strategies and for the responsibility of the learners to further their own progress.

There's More to Learning Than Instructional Techniques

The overemphasis on teaching strategies might be acceptable if research could demonstrate that teaching strategies had the most influence on the degree and quality of learning. However, Dansereau (1978) and many others have noted that truly "distinctive" teaching strategies often show no difference in terms of their effect on student performance. Educational research is rife with sad (and expensive) examples of instructional techniques that produce "no significant difference" in actual learning results.

However, weak research results do not necessarily mean that teachers are unimportant in L2 learning, or in other types of learning, just as they do not imply that instructional strategies are inconsequential. On the other hand, these findings do imply that teaching strategies are only part of the broad, complex picture of L2 learning. In fact, teaching strategies interact with a host of other variables to facilitate learning. These factors include attributes of the learner, characteristics of the material to be learned, socioeconomic factors, nutrition, physical surroundings, timing of instruction and study, availability and quality of materials, parental support, teacher experience and attitude, leadership qualities of school administrative staff, political conditions, and even the weather. Research is finally examining some of these other factors, especially attributes of the learner. It is now becoming apparent that the teacher's role must expand to include a greater understanding of the important characteristics that learners bring to the learning situation.

Learner Attributes Are Crucial in Understanding Learning

Attributes of the learner are probably every bit as crucial as teaching strategies (and more important than some of the other factors mentioned previously) for understanding the process of second language learning. Five important attributes for L2 learning are: language learning aptitude, attitudinal/motivational factors, personality characteristics, generalized learning style, and specific learning strategies.

Language learning aptitude is the person's native intellectual capacity to learn a language. This aptitude, of course, is highly related to the person's general level of cognitive development or maturity and may be limited in its expression by environmental or other factors. There seems to be a general consensus that language learning involves the assimilation of informational input into existing cognitive structures (Bates, 1972; Osgood, 1971; Sinclair de Zwart, 1973; Slobin, 1971).

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Attitudinal/motivational factors have to do with the learner's attitude toward language learning in general and toward the language that is being learned in particular (and its surrounding culture), as well as with the learner's motivation to learn the language (see especially Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Gardner & Smythe, 1975).

Personality characteristics that are related to second language learning include extroversion, sense of humor, achievement orientation, lack of inhibition, assertiveness, impulsivity, adventuresomeness, tolerance of ambiguity and frustration, risk-taking, flexibility, confidence, determination, and empathy (Naiman, Frolich, & Todesco, 1975; Reiss, 1983; Rubin & Thompson, 1982).

Learning style, sometimes called cognitive style, has been defined in various ways. Schmeck (1983) defines it as a predisposition toward a particular learning strategy, regardless of the specific demands of the learning task. Not surprisingly, one person's learning style may be more productive than another's. Furthermore, according to Schmeck, one individual may be more *stylistic*, or consistent in learning style, while another may be more sensitive to situational learning demands. Another definition of learning style or cognitive style relates to field independence/dependence, i.e., the ability or inability to distinguish the key elements from a confusing or distracting background, or *field*. This variable relates to the degree an individual actively imposes organization upon information through an internal, cognitive restructuring (see Witkin & Goodenough, 1977). Field independence appears helpful for second language learning skills like reading but is not necessarily as helpful in a skill such as speaking (Bialystok & Frolich, 1978; Naiman, Frolich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978).

Learning Strategies Are Modifiable and Significant

Learning strategies are important for at least two reasons. First, studies show that learning strategies can be improved or modified through training (Dansereau, 1978; O'Malley, Russo, & Chamot, 1983; O'Malley, Russo, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, & Kupper, 1983; Weinstein, Schulte, & Cascallar, 1984). Instructional manipulation is often strongest for low-ability subjects (Mayer, 1980). Second, successful language learners tend to use "good" strategies more often than unsuccessful language learners (Cohen, in press; Naiman, Frolich, & Todesco, 1975; Reiss, 1983; Rubin, 1975, 1981; Rubin & Thompson, 1982).

Many Types of Learning Strategies Are Included in the New Taxonomy

Tables 1 and 2 show a preliminary taxonomy (including definitions) of second language learning strategies. This taxonomy was built on the second language learning strategy work of Bialystok (1981); Bialystok and Frolich (1978); Naiman, Frolich, and Todesco (1975); O'Malley (1984); O'Malley, Russo, and Chamot (1983); O'Malley, Russo, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, and Kupper (1983); Rubin (1975, 1981); Rubin and Thompson (1982); Stewner-Manzanares et al. (1983); and others. It also draws on general academic learning strategies as researched by Dansereau, Long, McDonald, and Actkinson (1975); Dansereau (1978); Weinstein (1978); and Weinstein, Schulte, and Cascallar (1984). Finally, it was used as the basis for a new inventory of L2 learning strategies, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford-Carpenter, in press).

Direct (Primary) Versus Indirect (Support) is a Key Distinction

A distinction has been made between primary strategies and support strategies (Dansereau, 1978). Primary strategies are used to operate directly on the learning materials, while support strategies are used to establish an appropriate learning attitude and help the learner cope with distractions, fatigue, frustration, and so on. In a related but not identical vein, Rubin (1981) spoke of direct versus indirect strategies, the former contributing directly and the latter contributing indirectly to learning. Direct or primary strategies are listed in Table 1, while indirect or support strategies are listed in Table 2.

Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies Serve Different Purposes

The distinction between *cognitive* and *metacognitive* learning strategies is sometimes used. Cognitive learning strategies involve manipulation of learning materials in order to enhance learning or retention (Stewner-Manzanares et al., 1983). Examples include mnemonic devices such as rhyming, inferential thinking, and the combination of learned material into new patterns. Metacognitive learning strategies involve knowledge and regulation of one's own learning. In metacognitive strategies the learners "step back" and consider their own cognitive processes (Stewner-Manznares et al., 1983). These techniques include self-monitoring, self-assessment, and self-reinforcement as well as the ability to set long-term goals and determine one's own optimal learning environment, all strategies that indicate the learner's conscious awareness of their own learning patterns and needs. In the preliminary taxonomy, cognitive strategies are found under direct strategies (Table 1), and metacognitive strategies are listed under indirect strategies (Table 2). Stewner-Manzanares et al. (1983) stated that cognitive learning strategies should be accompanied by metacognitive learning strategies.

Syntactic and Semantic Strategies Work Together

Clark and Clark (1977) suggested that two strategies are used frequently in combination: syntactic and semantic. Syntactic strategies rely on the use of function words, suffixes, prefixes, and certain categories of content words. Semantic strategies relate to real objects, states, and events (as seen in environment observation or cultural contextual clues). The taxonomy shown in the insert places both of these types of strategies under direct or primary strategies. In the taxonomy, formal practice relates to syntactic strategies, and functional practice and inferencing strategies relate to semantic strategies.

Two Kinds of Practice Are Considered in the Taxonomy

Formal versus functional practice is a common distinction, particularly when applied to the learner's practice of the L2. According to Bialystok (1981), formal practice is the specific exercise of the language code to master the rule system. Examples of formal practice include practicing newly learned verb tenses, memorizing vocabulary lists, and reciting sounds. Functional practice occurs when the learner uses the language for communication or comprehension purposes, such as watching a foreign language movie or talking with native speakers of the L2 (Bialystok, 1981). In the preliminary taxonomy, both formal practice and functional practice are listed as direct or primary learning strategies, while the creation of practice opportunities is classified as an indirect or support learning strategy.

Social Strategies Also Contribute to Learning

Researchers have also recognized a category of "socially mediated" or "social" learning strategies (see Fillmore, 1976; Russo & Stewner-Manzanares, 1985). One social learning strategy is cooperating with peers to obtain feedback, to pool information, or to practice.

Other social learning strategies include asking questions for clarification; being attentive to social cues such as the speaker's body language, physical distance, sex, age, and social status; and actively seeking social situations in which to practice the L2. Social learning strategies are particularly important for exposing the learner to the target language, increasing the amount of interaction with native speakers, and enhancing motivation (Fillmore, 1976). For the sake of simplicity, the current taxonomy places a social learning strategy in either the direct (primary) category or the indirect (support) category, depending on the way the particular strategy appears to be used most often.

Other Strategies Aid Learning

Also included in the preliminary taxonomy are selected general study skills, like determining the optimal learning environment, organizing, scheduling, and being actively involved. These study skills, although useful in many settings and for many kinds of learning, are especially applicable to L2 learning. One strategy in the taxonomy is finding and implementing ways to cope with anxiety. While this strategy can be used in many other (nonlanguage) learning situations, it is particularly valuable in L2 learning--especially when oral production demands are high.

Some strategies are useful for text processing in L1 as well as L2. Examples include selecting the main idea, reading in broad phrases, and looking for clues in the way the text is organized. These text-processing strategies are included in the taxonomy because they are very useful to intermediate and advanced L2 learners, although they may be of limited utility to beginning L2 learners. Needless to say, the taxonomy cannot include all the possible strategies that L2 learners ever use. It does, however, cover most of the important ones that have been researched to date.

The Taxonomy Provides a Useful Framework

These distinctions--primary versus support, direct versus indirect, cognitive versus metacognitive, and so on--can become blurred in practice, largely because "directness," "primariness," or "cognitiveness" may be more a matter of degree than of category. Furthermore, certain individuals may use a strategy as a direct contribution to learning, while others may use the same strategy as only an indirect contribution to learning. Therefore, the classification of any strategy into one of these broad categories should not be considered absolute. The enclosed taxonomy is simply an attempt to provide a coherent, heuristic framework for discussing L2 learning strategies. This taxonomy will be further revised to reflect the various ways in which learning strategies are used in each of the four modalities of speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

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Appendix

Table 1

Direct or primary strategies of second language learning
A preliminary taxonomy

Inferencing Strategies

Guessing (Inductive/Inferencing) in a Communication Situation: Using all available information to guess meanings of new L2 items, predict outcomes, or fill in gaps; such information might include knowledge of the L2 or the L1, knowledge of the topic, perception of the speaker (tone of voice, emphasis, body language, distance, status, sex), and awareness of the situation.

Inferential and Related Text Strategies: Using all available information to understand the written L2 text; such information might include knowledge of the L2 or the L1, knowledge of the topic on awareness of text characteristics, making ongoing mental summaries of what is read, reading in broad phrases, skipping unfamiliar or unimportant words or phrases, skimming the passage first to get the overall idea, then reading the passage in more depth.

L1 - L2 Strategies

Translation: Using the L1 as a verbatim basis for understanding or producing the L2

Transfer: Using previously acquired L1 linguistic knowledge to facilitate new L2 learning; usually involves a period of using an "interlanguage"

Analogy: Inferring L2 rules by analogy with the L1

Contrastive Analysis: Analyzing elements of the L1 and the L2 to determine likenesses and similarities

Mnemonic Strategies

Mechanical Tricks: Using mechanical tricks for memorizing, e.g., moving cards from one pocket to another when the words are learned, or color-coding types of words

Rhyming: Using rhymes or associated techniques, such as alliteration or assonance, to remember words according to their sound characteristics

Flash Cards: Listing a new L2 word or phrase on one side of the card and its L1 equivalent on the other

Loci: Remembering L2 information by remembering its location in the notebook, on the page, on the blackboard, or in a mental picture

Situationalism: Remembering a new word by associating it with the situation in which it was first heard by the learner, or the situation in which it is typically used

List Making: Making a list of new material to be memorized without grouping it in any particular way

List Breaking:: Dividing a long list of items into parts, in order to learn the parts one at a time

Attribute Grouping: Classifying or reclassifying the material to be learned, based on common attributes (e.g., nouns) or on opposition (e.g., black-white, hot-cold)

Auditory Association: Associating a new L2 word with a known word that sounds like it

Visual Image: Using a mental image to help remember a new word; making a drawing of the new material

Keyword: Remembering a new L2 word by (a) identifying a familiar L1 word that sounds like the L2 word (auditory link) and (b) generating an easily recalled mental image of the L2 word "interacting" with the L1 word (visual link)

Elaboration: Relating new information to other concepts on memory by means of associations, which may be simple or complex, commonplace or bizarre

Physical Response: Responding to a new L2 word with a physical response, acting out a new word, or associating a word with a physical sensation, in order to remember it

Phonological Aids: Using accent marks or phonetic spelling to memorize the correct pronunciation

Other General Memory Strategies

Silent Rehearsal with Delayed Production: Rehearsing new material silently before producing it orally; this is used as a memory- enhancing technique

Rote: Memorizing a word or rule by rote without fully understanding it

Whole Passage: Memorizing a whole passage as a unit, learning songs, jingles, commercials, or poems

Emphasis and Summarizing Strategies

Notetaking: Writing down the main idea or important points, either in the L1 or the L2; if in the L2, this may be a kind of functional practice

Outlining: Making a formal outline of the main idea and other important points

Summarizing: Making a summary of information presented

Highlighting: Marking, underlining, or otherwise highlighting a new word or phrase

Emphasis Markers: Looking for emphasis markers ("This is important") to help organize new L2 information

Functional (Communication or Comprehension) Practice

L2 Self-Talk: Talking to oneself in the L2

Gaming: Playing L2 word games, or other types of games that involve L2 knowledge

Contextualization: Placing a new word or phrase in a meaningful sentence or other language sequence

Recombination: Constructing a meaningful sentence, or longer language sequence, by combining known elements in new ways

Naturalistic Practice: Practicing the L2 in natural L2 settings, such as movies, lectures, parties, and conversations with native speakers

Formal Practice with Sounds or Rules

Rule Exercises: Practicing rules through language exercises orally, or in writing

Aural/Oral Experiment: Practicing with new sounds in isolation, or in context; may use a mirror

Aural Observation: Practicing the sound of an unfamiliar word, in order to look up the meaning later

Repetition: Repeating a word or phrase

Imitation: Imitating a language model, using either overt practice or silent rehearsal

Formalized Patterns: Practicing prefabricated or formalized speech routines

Word or Sentence Analysis: Finding the meaning of a word or sentence, or breaking it down into parts

Rule Search: Searching for patterns and rules in the L2 and noting exceptions to rules

Overgeneralization: Simplifying the rules of the L2 and applying them too generally in practice (useful in early stages of L2 learning)

Clarification and Verification Strategies

Clarification: Asking a teacher or native speaker to repeat, clarify, paraphrase, explain, or give examples of a specific L2 item

Verification: Asking for verification of an item, asking if a specific utterance is correct, asking if a rule fits a particular case, paraphrasing or repeating a sentence to verify what was said

Resourcing

Using L2 reference materials such as dictionaries, or glossaries

Table 2

Indirect or Support Strategies for Second Language Learning A Preliminary Taxonomy

Attention-Enhancing Strategies

Advance Organizers: Making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity

Directed Attention: Deciding in advance to attend in general to an L2 learning task and to ignore irelevant distractors; may include such attention-enhancing techniques as active listening silently answering even when not called upon, or reading aloud to oneself

Selective Attention: Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of L2 input or situational details that will cue the retention of specific L2 information

Self-Management Strategies

Self-Monitoring: Analyzing one's own errors and correcting one's own mistakes

Self-Assessment, Self Evaluation, or Self-Estimation: Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness, quality, or accuracy; measuring one's own progress against long-term L2 learning goals; writing down (in a notebook or journal) specific information regarding the language learning process

Self-Diagnosis or Self-Prescription: Assessing one's own strengths and weaknesses in the L2 and determining what must be done to deal with the weaknesses

Self-Reinforcement: Arranging tangible rewards for oneself when an L2 learning task is successfully completed

Affective Strategies

Positive Self-Talk: Saying positive statements (affirmations) to oneself, in order to feel more confident or capable

Anxiety Reduction: Reducing anxiety, especially when oral production demands are high, by means of relaxation, meditation, and other techniques

Planning and Goal-Setting Strategies

Long-Term Goal Setting: Setting one's own long-term goals for L2 learning

Short-Term Goal Setting: Setting one's own short-term goals for L2 learning (by hours, days, weeks)

Functional Planning: Planning for and rehearsing L2 linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task

Production or Reception Strategies

Production Techniques: Using tricks to keep communication going, such as filler words (*uh, let's see. . .*), synonyms, circumlocutions, mime, gestures, compensatory code switching, Anglification, avoidance of topics in which the learner does not feel confident, word coinage, and lexical substitution

Reception Techniques: Making requests for slower speech, assistance, or repetition

Study Strategies

Scheduling: Devising and using appropriate schedules; completing assignments on time

Regularity: Studying regularly and in appropriate increments

Environment: Creating an optimal environment for learning (involving factors such as noise, temperature, or amount of space)

Organization: Organizing one's work in the most efficient manner

Practice-Creating Strategies

Making opportunities for practicing communication and/or comprehension skills in the L2; for example, going to movies or social events, listening to the radio or to records, finding L2 pen-pals, meeting native speakers, and reading L2 books or magazines

Cooperation Strategies

Working with one or more people to obtain feedback, share information, review, correct, or practice.

Author

Rebecca Oxford-Carpenter, Project Officer for Research and Evaluation, Corporation for Public Broadcasting and The Annenberg School of Communications, 1111 Sixteenth Street NW, Washington, DC 20036. Specializations: language learning, testing, computer-assisted instruction.

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Some Implications of Reading Research for L2 Reading Instruction

Irene Thompson
George Washington University

The purpose of this paper is to survey some of the relevant theoretical research on reading in L1 and L2 and its practical implications for L2 reading pedagogy. The role of phonology, vocabulary, syntax, and background knowledge will be examined within a schema-theoretic framework of reading comprehension, and the applications of an interactional model of reading to L2 pedagogy will be discussed, with particular emphasis on creating an environment conducive to the development of reading proficiency through the use of authentic materials and emphasis on the development of effective strategies.

Research on reading in L1 has attracted the attention of experimental psychologists in the last two decades. The field is interdisciplinary, and addresses questions of theory as well as practice. It encompasses the study of reading from such diverse perspectives as word perception (Rumelhart, 1985); text organization (Meyer, 1975; Meyer & Freedle, 1984); eye movements (Thibadeau, Just, & Carpenter, 1982); word frequency (Kucera & Francis, 1967): reading disorders (Coltheart, Patterson, & Marshall, 1980): and the consequences of learning to read different scripts (Biederman & Tsao, 1979).

The last decade has witnessed the growth of interest in L2 reading as well. Much of this research attempts to extend the principles of reading in L1 to reading in L2, and most of it involves reading in ESL. There is relatively little research in the area of learning to read in other foreign languages. Due to the lack of experimental evidence directly involving languages other than English, assumptions have to be made with regard to the generalizability of ESL findings to reading in other foreign languages.

Despite the diversity of approaches and experimental paradigms in reading research of the last two decades, the prevailing model of reading in the eighties is generally conceptualized as a complex information processing skill involving an interaction between the reader and the text This conceptualization is best summed up by this popular quotation from Kenneth Goodman (1970):

> reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game. It involves an interaction between thought and language. Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the fewest, most productive clues necessary to produce guesses which are right the first time.

This interactional model of reading has two important implications for reading in L2: (1) reading is an interactive process between the reader and the text: and (2) the reader is at least as important as the text, since comprehension is defined as the reader's construction of meaning from the text. As Carrell (1983) put it:

> Meaning does not just reside in the text, rather meaning is constructed out of the interaction between a reader's activated background knowledge and what's in the text. If a reader is not actively using his or her background knowledge, a significant part of the reading process isn't taking place, and the construction of meaning suffers (p. 200).

Linguistic Knowledge in Reading Comprehension

The Role of Phonology

Almost twenty years ago, when experimental psychologists began the study of reading from the perspective of information processing, many of them collected a considerable amount of evidence to support the phonological recoding hypothesis, i.e., establishing sound-letter correspondences as a necessary condition for lexical access (Bough, 1972). At the same time, other investigators were collecting evidence to support the direct access hypothesis (Henderson, 1987; Hung & Tzeng, 1981; Seidenberg, 1985). It is now clear that phonological recoding is not necessary for word recognition; readers can get meaning directly from print. This does not mean, however, that phonological recoding is not used at all. It simply means that, rather than being an obligatory step in the reading process, it is simply one of the strategies available to readers for getting meaning from print.

When children begin to read in their first language, they learn to recognize graphic representations of words they already know how to pronounce. Phillips (1984) points out that the situation is quite different when it comes to reading in L2. Whereas children have mastered the phonological system of L1 before they begin reading instruction, L2 learners are still in the process of acquiring the new solid system. Consequently, when asked to read aloud, they are forced to devote most of their attention to sound-letter correspondences, articulation, punctuation, location of stress, etc., and pay little attention to the meaning of what they are reading. As a result of such shallow processing of the text, comprehension suffers. Since efficient reading involves integration of information over more than one word at a time, reading aloud, a necessarily linear process, interferes with such integration because it precludes nonlinear processes involved in efficient reading, such as going back and forth in the text to check relations between non-contiguous words.

The results of a study of oral reading miscues by Cziko (1980) suggest that accuracy in oral reading may be an end product of language proficiency. In this study, intermediate students of French made a significantly higher proportion of errors that did not conform to the syntactic, semantic, or discourse constraints of the text than did advanced and native-speaker students. It was concluded that students with advanced competence used an interactive strategy of drawing on both graphic and contextual information when reading aloud. as compared with less proficient students who failed to use contextual information to the same extent, and instead relied primarily on graphic information.

Many teachers believe that students will learn to read better if they know the correct pronunciation of each word. In fact, being able to pronounce printed words is neither a necessary, nor a sufficient condition for learning to read. L2 readers, presumably, are efficient readers in their native language. As such, they do not phonologically recode each word they read in L1. When forced to read aloud in L2, they are encouraged to rely exclusively on a strategy which needs to be used only on a selective basis. This may retard the development of reading for comprehension.

The Role of Vocabulary

Old Chinese proverb: *Give a man a fish, and he will eat that day. Teach a man how to fish, and he will never go hungry.*

Reading should not be equated with the lexical access of single words but should be viewed instead as a complex activity which involves scanning and storage, short-term retention, syntactic processing, and semantic integration over the entire discourse. Developing a reading program around vocabulary building alone is not going to be enough, since comprehension includes more than knowing individual words, and traditional vocabulary skills emphasized in most L2 reading programs, such as word lists, study of derivational affixes and use of dictionaries, while helpful, are not adequate.

Some teachers advocate the building of reading vocabulary via systematic learning of vocabulary lists based on frequency counts. They often have the support of their students, who feel more comfortable reading texts which consist of familiar vocabulary. However, the efficacy of this practice is questionable because, beyond several hundred most frequent words, individual lexical items begin to depend on context more and more, so that the more advanced the materials, the less the teacher/learner can depend on frequency lists (Faerch, Haastrup, & Phillipson, 1984).

While word familiarity undoubtedly contributes to reading comprehension, the statistical probability of a word does not *per se* determine its familiarity or difficulty for a given reader. An unfamiliar word is much easier to understand if it appears in a familiar context, whereas a familiar word may not be comprehended if it appears in a new, or unexpected context. Without context, it is practically an impossible task to decide *a priori* what constitutes a difficult word.

Readability formulas, based on sentence and word length, consider long words to be difficult. Yet high-imagery or cognate long English words, such as *hippopotamus* or *democratization*, cause Russian readers little difficulty, while low-imagery or non-cognate, short words, such as *them, their*, or *thus*, are more difficult for them to recognize. Yet, according to a survey by Bernhardt (1984), developers of L2 materials typically tend to gloss long words.

A typical reading selection with glossed vocabulary prevents learners from developing self-reliance in the contextual guessing of unfamiliar lexical items. Learners who rely on glosses may have preconceived ideas about the meaning of polyvalent words and may fail to develop flexible strategies for contextual guessing. A study by Hudson (1982) demonstrated, for instance, that for low- and intermediate-level ESL students, a presentation of a list of unfamiliar vocabulary items to be encountered in a text with definitions appropriate to their use in the text was the least effective of three types of pre-reading activities (vocabulary presentation, generating questions from picture cues, and read-reread activity). Even more revealing is the study of Johnson (1982), who found that three different types of vocabulary instruction prior to, or simultaneous with passage reading, were not significantly more effective than the absence of any vocabulary presentation.

Rather than relying on frequency lists or pre-reading glosses, Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig (1979) advocate extensive reading as the answer to building a reading vocabulary. They point out that, while 2,000 words may be adequate for everyday conversations in English, as many as 150,000 words may be necessary for reading.

The sheer size of such a recognition vocabulary, according to Crow (1986), makes it necessary to distinguish between productive control over words and the ability to recognize them in reading. He argues that, while productive control over words involves a detailed understanding of their morphology and interrelationships with other words, such detailed knowledge is not necessary for a general understanding of most reading passages. He suggests that a distinction be made between vocabulary activities aimed at developing the ability to recognize a large number of words, and those activities which facilitate productive mastery of a much smaller number of lexical items. In addition, Crow feels that learners should be made to understand the difference between productive and receptive vocabulary, so that they themselves can develop proper attitudes and strategies for dealing with receptive vocabulary in context. He suggests semantic grouping techniques as a possible answer to building up a large recognition vocabulary.

A final remark concerning new-word density is in order. Bernhardt (1984) points out that if a text has so many new words that L2 readers cannot read it by skipping over the unfamiliar words, or by guessing their approximate meaning from context, then a dictionary will be more of a hindrance than a help. In the first place, excessive dictionary lookup slows down the reading process to the point where it becomes laborious and frustrating word-by-word decipherment. In the second place, readers cannot choose the appropriate meaning of a polyvalent word unless they have already understood the context in which the word is found. Bernhardt feels that such texts should not be read until the learner has achieved an appropriate level of proficiency.

The Role of Syntax

Until recently, it was generally assumed that syntax played a dominant role in the comprehensibility of texts. As a result, it was taken for granted that syntactically simplified materials were easier to comprehend than their more grammatically complex originals. When this assumption was tested on children reading in L1 (Pearson, 1974-75), the data, contrary to expectations, showed that they were better able to understand sentences which were syntactically complex but causally explicit (*Because the chain broke, the machine stopped)*, than two juxtaposed simple sentences *The chain broke. The machine stopped)* Pearson concluded that complex sentences were easier to comprehend because they were more explicit propositionally.

A study of the effects of simplification on text comprehensibility in L2, once again contrary to expectations, demonstrated that the simplification of original texts is a process that is not without danger. Honeyfield (1977) observed that a simplified passage was actually harder to comprehend than the unsimplified original because it lacked redundancies, repetitions and the individual touches the author used to get the message across.

Taken together, these studies indicate that syntactically simple does not necessarily equal more comprehensible. However, there is yet another facet to the question concerning the role of syntax in comprehension and recall, and it concerns the close connection between vocabulary and syntax. Barnett (1986) examined the role of lexicon/semantics versus the role of syntax in the ability of intermediate-level English-speaking students to comprehend a French text. The students were given a cloze test in which half the choices depended upon knowledge of vocabulary or upon attention to semantics within the text, and half depended upon knowledge of syntax. The students then read and recalled an original French passage. The recall scores were categorized according to how well the students performed on the grammar and vocabulary sections of the cloze test. Results showed that both vocabulary and syntax were related to comprehension as measured by recall. In addition, the interaction of syntax and vocabulary scores was also found to have a statistically significant effect on comprehension, suggesting that both sets of skills are necessary for reading comprehension.

Thus, our current state of knowledge about the role of syntax in comprehension indicates that, while syntactic simplification does not necessarily result in greater comprehensibility, syntax does play a role in comprehension. Consequently, rather than abandoning the teaching of grammar in our reading programs, we need to distinguish between grammar for *recognition* and grammar for *production*. In a language such as Russian, which is characterized by complex surface morphology and theme-rheme governed word order, the former is usually taught for productive mastery over long periods of instruction, with little time left for the latter. Yet, for the purpose of reading comprehension, word order plays a more significant role than, for instance, do case endings.

The Role of Background Knowledge

A central theme in many analyses of reading comprehension is the powerful role of prior knowledge of the content area relative to which the text is to be understood. The role of background knowledge in language comprehension, formalized in the schema-theory, holds that no text has meaning by itself. The meaning instead results from an interaction between what the reader already knows and what is in the text itself, as summarized in the earlier quotation from Carrell (1983). In a now classic study, Anderson, Reynolds, Schallert, and Goetz (1977) presented an ambiguous passage to physical education and music majors. The former concluded that the passage dealt with a wrestling match, while the latter had other explanations. The authors concluded that text comprehension was not based so much upon text-based features as on the information which the readers possessed prior to reading the text, indicating that the readers make sense of a text in the light of their background knowledge about its contents.

Resnick (1984) identifies three broad classes of prior knowledge. All three classes play an important role in the comprehension of texts. These are *domain-specific knowledge, general knowledge of the world, and knowledge of text structure*.

Domain-Specific Knowledge

This refers to knowledge of the topic discussed in the text. We all know that it is easier for us to read about things we know something about because we can use our background knowledge to make sense of the printed page by relating information in the passage to information already in our minds (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978). Thus Chiesi, Spilich, and Voss (1979) found that L1 readers who knew a great deal about baseball were able to anticipate and recall more information from a reading passage about baseball than readers who knew little about the game.

When it comes to texts in a foreign language, it has been shown that people recall a greater amount of information from reading passages that are based on native themes than they do from passages based on foreign ones. In a study by Steffensen, Joan-Dev, and Anderson (1979), subjects from India and the U.S. read letters describing both Indian and American weddings. They were able to recall more information from the letter which described their own culture than from the one which described the other one. In addition, native culture interference was observed in recall of information from the other culture. In another study (Aron, 1986), native and non-native readers read and recalled two English passages. One passage was based on a universal theme, while the other one was based on U.S. history. The results showed that, while native and non-native readers brought similar previous knowledge to the universal theme, they brought differing degrees of knowledge to the culture-specific passage.

Analyzing L2 reading from an information-processing perspective, Bernhardt (1984) compared the comprehension of a short German literary passage, judged to be easy on a readability scale by a student who had returned from one year of study in Germany and a less experienced student who had completed two years of German. The first student made sense of the passage and was able to define unfamiliar words by placing the passage in the appropriate historical context. The second student, on the other hand, was not able to resolve the situation described in the passage, and, therefore, considered it to be illogical, a joke. A simple Spanish literary passage was understood by a third-year Spanish high school student as a description of Spanish tourists visiting France, not Spanish peasants fleeing to France in search of work as the author intended. Being unable to relate the information in the passage to social and economic conditions in certain areas of Spain, the student comprehended the passage at the factual level of a description of a train ride, and never understood its deeper meaning.

The foregoing has strong implications for L2 reading pedagogy. When learners are presented with reading passages about the target language country for which they lack appropriate background information, they may either be unable to comprehend the passage at all, or will comprehend it only at the shallow level of facts, and may not be able to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Providing L2 readers with the appropriate background information prior to reading the text will help reduce their cognitive overload. For instance, Johnson (1982) found that ESL readers understood and recalled a passage about Halloween better if they were provided with some basic information about this holiday before they read the passage, and Adams (1982) reported that telling students what the passages were about significantly increased their ability to derive the meaning of unfamiliar words from context. As a result, Adams recommended that reading selections, especially in the early stages, include topics with which the students are already familiar rather than passages dealing exclusively with the target language country and culture. With the support of a familiar script, beginning students can be better able to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words.

In an important study of reading in ESL, Carrell (1983) compared the extent to which native and nonnative readers of English utilized three components of background knowledge. These were (1) prior knowledge in the content area of the text (familiar versus novel); (2) prior knowledge that the text is about a particular content area (context versus no context), and the degree to which the lexical items in the text reveal the content area (transparent versus opaque). She found that, unlike native speakers, for whom all three components played a significant role in reading, understanding, and recalling a text, nonnative high-intermediate, and even advanced readers showed virtually no significant effects of background knowledge. They were processing the literal language of the text but were not making connections between the text and the appropriate background information.

These negative findings, while difficult to translate into immediate classroom practices, suggest, however, that there are a number of possible approaches which need to be tested. One approach would be to provide L2 readers with the appropriate background knowledge in the first place, especially where such information is specific to the second language culture and may not be part of the L2 reader's prior experience or knowledge. The other approach would be to design pre-reading activities which would activate the background knowledge the student already possesses through the use of various pre-reading activities, some of which will be described in the section titled "Reading Strategies."

Bernhardt (1984) suggests that authentic reading materials be supplemented with auxiliary materials to provide culturally accurate background information, that L2 teachers assess the extent of their students' background knowledge to determine the suitability of reading passages, and that they be prepared to supply relevant background information if their students do not possess it. She suggests several ways in which students' background knowledge of the passage topic can be assessed: (a) by asking them to write down or to discuss orally what they already know about the topic in their native language; (b) by having them answer open-ended, true-false or multiple choice questions about the topic; and (c) by having them write definitions of key terms used in the passage.

Carrell (1984a) proposed that building appropriate background knowledge can be accomplished through various combinations of lectures, movies, slides, pictures, field trips, demonstrations, real-life experiences, classroom discussions, role-plays, predictions about the text, text previewing, discussions of special vocabulary to be encountered in the text, key-word/key-concept associations, and prior reading of related texts. She feels that key-word/key-concept association is a particularly useful activity for lower-proficiency readers whose comprehension often breaks down at the word level. During this activity, designed by Pearson and Johnson (1978), prior to reading a text, students volunteer various kinds of associations to a key word (superordinates, subordinates, contraries, definitions, synonyms, similar--sounding words or personal experiences. The teacher writes them on the board, and may even organize them into a *semantic map* for the students, or expand them to build bridges between what the students already know and what they will need to know in order to understand a particular text. These associations then form the basis for a group discussion which prepares students for reading the text.

Hudson (1982) gave ESL students of varying proficiency levels pre-reading activities which consisted of (1) looking at a set of cue pictures and making predictions about the contents of the text; (2) going over a list of key vocabulary items to be encountered in the text; and (3) reading and rereading the text. He found that the first activity had a significantly greater facilitating effect on reading comprehension than the other two. However, this effect was significant only for low- and intermediate-proficiency students. At the advanced level, all three activities had an equal effect.

This study points to some serious deficiencies in many current reading materials. A typical L2 reading selection usually includes a set of comprehension questions. Students typically give oral answers to these comprehension questions in class, or write out their answers at home. The process is fairly mechanical, since many of the questions can be answered by direct quotes from the text (Beatie, Martin, & Oberst, 1984). If, however, skilled comprehenders use their background knowledge to relate information in the text to what they already know, then activating background information *prior* to reading a passage might enhance its comprehension. In addition, giving the individual readers a more active role by having them generate questions about the passage prior to reading it may equally facilitate text comprehension.

Finally, the notion of *narrow reading* must also be mentioned (Krashen, 1981). We all know that the more one reads about an area, the more one learns about it, and the easier it becomes to read in that area. Krashen argues that providing short and varied selections from diverse areas does not allow students to become sufficiently familiar with a single topic or the specialized vocabulary associated with it. Narrow reading, on the other hand, provides for a natural recycling of material and thus contains a built-in review, while allowing appropriate background knowledge to develop and grow. Thus, a beginning reading course might include reading a number of weather forecasts, instead of just one, before moving on to reading a group of selections on sports or some other topic, all within the same level of text difficulty.

General World Knowledge

The second class of prior knowledge, identified by Resnick (1984), is general world knowledge, that is, knowledge of social relationships and causal structures that are common to many specific situations and domains, such as, for instance, knowledge about physical and psychological causality. To understand an event, we must understand the causes that produced it and the effects that resulted from it. Linguistic cohesion such as anaphora, cataphora, and lexical coreference (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) are used by readers to relate sentences, but their long-term connectivity is determined by whether or not an event can be causally inferred from another event, using world knowledge about such events.

According to Trabasso, Secco, and Van Den Broek (1984), once events in a story occur, they in turn establish expectations (pathways) for other events, some of which may terminate (dead-end events) and some of which may continue (causal chain events). Causal chain events usually focus on a series of explicit or overt actions, while dead-end events are typical reasons for actions, emotional reactions, or actions that have no further consequences. In comprehending a text, the reader usually deletes dead-end events and includes causal-chain events as a network representation for purposes of recall. For instance, Trabasso et al. found that fifth-grade children were able to retrieve significantly more causal-chain than dead-end events in immediate recall. After one week, they continued to forget dead-end events, whereas almost no forgetting occurred for events in the causal chain. The explanation seems to be that chain events are recalled better because they have many connections.

These findings have two possible implications for reading in L2. The first implication concerns the selection of the reading passages themselves. Should reading materials include stories with a lot of causal linking of events to aid students' comprehension, rather than non-stories, particularly at the beginning and intermediate levels? Would the students' knowledge of causality help them anticipate what is to come next in the passage and guess the meaning of unfamiliar words?

The second implication concerns reading tasks. Since readers comprehend and remember events which lie directly on the causal chain better than dead-end events, reading tasks, especially at lower levels of proficiency, should address primarily such top-level information rather than information which is peripheral to the causal chain of events.

Rhetorical Structure

A text is not just a series of sentences or paragraphs; instead it follows a hierarchy of content, so that some facts or statements are superordinate or subordinate to others. The hierarchy of propositions in the text is related to its recall: high-level propositions are recalled better than low-level ones (Meyer, 1975).

Although readers process texts linearly, they do not wait until after they have read the entire text to find the top-level structure and other superordinate relations which subsume large portions of the text. According to Meyer, when readers see certain key words in a text, they usually make an educated guess about which organizational plan to assign to it.

This plan, in turn, helps separate important information from less important details and fill in the gaps in understanding. This is particularly important in L2 reading, where many such gaps exist due to insufficient mastery of the target language. There is evidence that, if L1 readers are made aware of the existence of organization in a text, they remember better what they have read (Geva, 1983; Reutzel, 1985; Taylor & Beach, 1984).

Meyer (1977) identified five basic types of prose organization in English. These are: *collection* (a grouping or listing of concepts or ideas by association, e.g., a chronological sequence), *description* (all elements are subordinate to one), *cause-effect*, *problem-solution*, and *comparison*. These different types of content organization have differential effects on reading comprehension as measured by recall; *collections* and *descriptions* are remembered worse than other types of texts because they are less tightly organized (Meyer & Freedle, 1984).

Carrell (1984b) wanted to find out if these different types of prose organization affect L2 readers in the same way as they affect L1 readers. She took a short English paragraph and wrote it in five different ways (as a collection, a description, a cause-effect, a problem-solution, and a comparison). She then had ESL students read the paragraphs and recall them. Basically, she discovered that [except for speakers of Arabic, in whose language paragraphs tend to consist of parallel descriptions with coordinate conjunctions (Kaplan, 1966)] problem-solution, cause-effect, and comparison were remembered better. As a result, these students remembered collections and descriptions as well as they remembered problem-solution. This suggests that teachers can enhance students' understanding if they select more highly organized passages, particularly at the lower levels of reading proficiency.

In addition to manipulating the text, teachers can also manipulate the readers by teaching them strategies that the readers themselves recognize as being helpful to them. A study by Carrell (1985) speaks to this point. She wanted to find out if overt teaching about the top-level rhetorical organization of texts can facilitate ESL students' reading comprehension. The results of her experiment were positive. In addition, students were quite enthusiastic about the training because they felt that they learned a helpful technique.

Because text organization can differ from language to language, L2 readers may not be able to comprehend a text even though they know all the words. Kaplan (1966), who described significant differences in the way English, Russian, Arabic, and French paragraphs were put together, suggests that L2 readers need to be made aware of the fact that texts in L2 may reflect different patterns of rhetorical organization. Hinds (1983) found that English readers had difficulty in reading contemporary Japanese prose written in a traditional pattern, because this pattern is absent in English.

Cultural differences can include degree of explicitness with which ideas are expressed by the author. In Japanese, for instance, writers attempt to be as implicit as possible relying on the reader to do a lot of the work in getting the meaning (Takemoto, 1982). English, on the other hand, prizes explicitness, and typical writing programs teach students how to write clearly, i.e., to spell out exactly what they mean. This suggests that speakers of English will have to be aware of the rules of implicitness in Japanese in order to comprehend Japanese texts.

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The Building Blocks of a Proficiency-Based Reading Program

Authentic Materials

Recent developments in FL teaching stress the use of authentic materials in all proficiency-oriented reading programs. An authentic text is one which has a real-life communicative purpose (to inform, persuade, or congratulate), unlike textbook materials which are written not to communicate something to someone but to teach language.

Grellet (1981) extends the principle of authenticity to include the physical characteristics of the text as well.

> Authenticity means that nothing of the original text is changed and also that its presentation and layout are retained. A newspaper article, for instance, should be presented as it first appeared in the paper: with the same typeface, the same space devoted to the headlines, the same accompanying picture. By standardizing the presentation of texts in a textbook, one not only reduces interest and motivation, but one actually increases the difficulty for the students. The picture, the size of the headline, the use of bold-face type, all contribute to conveying the message to the reader (p. 8).

There are many compelling reasons for using authentic materials in the foreign language classroom.

(1) Swaffar (1985) points out that authentic texts allow readers to attend to the message, while edited texts, usually accompanied by vocabulary glosses and discrete point questions, encourage reading word for word rather than for meaning.

(2) Finding authentic texts for reading is relatively simple because there is a wide variety of such materials in the real world. They can be selected to suit the level, interest, and background of almost any kind of learner, thereby introducing variety, relevance, and interest into an L2 program.

(3) Authentic texts introduce contextualized information about the target culture which is often absent in the sterilized and sanitized reading materials found in most L2 textbooks.

(4) They provide readers with practice in handling a wide variety of texts with different patterns of rhetorical organization.

(5) By not providing the reader with a protective cocoon against the real world of reading, in which any word or structure can pop up at any time, authentic texts facilitate the development of coping strategies

which lead to independent reading relevance and interest into an L2 program.

(6) Finally, as discussed earlier, original texts can actually be easier to comprehend than their simplified versions.

Since authentic texts present a random assortment of difficulty levels, care must be taken to ascertain the difficulty level. A convenient typology devised by Child (1987) divides all texts into four levels. This typology, which takes into account both the propositional and linguistic complexity of texts, underlies the reading level descriptions in both the ILR and the ACTFL *Proficiency Guidelines*.

The Orientation Mode, or Level 1. These texts present information which is bound to a nonlinguistic context, e.g., signs which are usually posted at locations which help clarify their meaning. The language of such texts is extremely simple with regard to grammar and vocabulary and these texts contain no synonomy of structure or lexicon. They require practically no knowledge of grammar to be understood.

The Instructive Mode, or Level 2. These texts, which constitute the next level of difficulty, describe and narrate, without analysis or personal involvement by the writer in the material conveyed. They present descriptions of and narrations about real-world events, facts, and situations in the present, past, and future. An example of a text at this level would be a typical factual report in a newspaper or a textbook passage about a historical event. Although such texts usually deal with predictable facts and events, they represent greater linguistic variety, since no two writers would normally describe a fact or an event in exactly the same way. Hence, texts at this level display synonymity in both structure and vocabulary.

The Evaluative Mode, or Level 3. These texts, e.g., a newspaper editorial, contain the writer's value judgments expressed in a personalized way regarding material which is more abstract than the facts, events, and situations typically described and narrated in level 2 texts. As a result, level 3 texts are complex both propositionally and linguistically. They require readers to respond intellectually to the material conveyed. According to Child, such texts presume "a set of facts or a frame of reference shared by originator and receptor against which to evaluate what is said or written" (p. 104); in other words, they cannot be understood without knowledge of the target culture.

The Projective Mode, or Level 4. These texts, which are rarely encountered in daily life, are usually written by persons with an artistic talent, who, in addition to conveying information to their readers, want to impress the latter with their literary prowess. Thus, the language of such texts is often innovative and makes great demands of the reader. Typical of texts at this level is belletristic material: *think pieces*, philosophical discourse, and certain kinds of professional and technical papers which challenge or modify facts or assumptions common to a given field through complex analysis and argumentation.

In a proficiency-based reading curriculum, the difficulty level of authentic reading passages should match or slightly exceed the current reading level of the students. This suggests a smooth, gradual build-up in text difficulty, from formulaic/orientational texts for beginning readers, through instructive texts at the intermediate level, to the evaluative and projective texts at the advanced levels of instruction. It is clear why the frequent practice of having L2 students read only specially written or simplified texts during the first two years of instruction, immediately followed by literary texts at levels 3 and 4 results in a painful, laborious, and frustrating process of word-by-word decipherment through looking up almost each word in the dictionary.

Lowe (1986) recommends "the one of three rule," according to which only one component of reading proficiency (text, task, accuracy) be changed at a time. For instance, if a passage is above the student's current reading level, the level of the reading task and the accuracy of comprehension required are kept at the student's current level. If, however, the passage is at the student's actual reading level, either the difficulty of the reading task or the extent of comprehension required may be upgraded to a level above the student's current level.

Realistic Reading Tasks

The difficulty of a reading exercise is not a function of the intrinsic difficulty of the text alone but is also dependent on the task the reader is required to perform with the text and the degree of comprehension required. Consequently, in addition to grading the text, the difficulty level of the reading activities and the accuracy and completeness of comprehension must also be established. Grellet (1981) makes the following point: "Few reading activities are intrinsically good or bad. They only become so when used in relation to a given text. Reading comprehension activities should be suited to the texts, and to one's reasons for reading them" (p. 9).

There are many ways in which we read in the real world, all suited to the purposes for which we read. Grellet identifies four non-mutually exclusive ways of reading as follows: (I) skimming, or quickly running one's eyes over the text to get the gist of it; (2) scanning, or quickly searching for some particular item of information; (3) extensive reading, or reading longer texts for global understanding, usually for pleasure; and (4) intensive reading, or reading shorter texts for detail. One can first skim through a passage to see what it is about and whether it is worth reading, then scan it for a particular piece of information, or read it intensively for details. Thus, a sports page can be skimmed through first to settle on a sport of particular interest to the reader. The article can then be scanned to find out who, when, where, and what the score is. A fan might also read the article intensively, savoring every detail of the account.

The point is that, in designing reading activities for a particular text, we should take into account the way in which it might be read in the real world and the difficulty level of the activity. For instance, weather forecasts are usually scanned, whereas the front page of a newspaper is normally skimmed first. At the same time, scanning a sports report for a few facts is easier than determining the author's tone or comparing one account of a game with another. Thus, a good reading activity is one that matches the real-world purpose of the text, one that can be accomplished by a reader at that level in a reasonable amount of time, with little or no dictionary lookup, and one which requires a degree of comprehension commensurate with the student's current level of reading proficiency.

By manipulating simultaneously the difficulty levels of both the text and the task we can create an $i + 1$ reading environment; we can select a more difficult text for a simple task. For instance, we can have novice readers "stretch" to the intermediate level by having them scan a level 2 text for particular pieces of information without requiring them to understand all the details.

Reading Strategies

Strategies refer to processes that are open to manipulation by readers when they interact with the text. The adoption of a strategy is influenced both by variations in the reader's purpose and by the features of a text. Strategies offer the possibility of conscious control and are potential objectives for instruction as a set of procedures to improve comprehension and recall.

According to Block (1986), there are two views on strategy use by L2 readers. One view holds that reading ability in L2 is a function of general L2 proficiency which develops in a linear manner (Clarke, 1979; Cziko, 1980). The other group argues that higher level reading strategies can be transferred from L1 to L2 and can operate simultaneously with lower level strategies (Hudson, 1982). The latter group believes that as general L2 proficiency develops, various cognitive processes, such as prediction, can operate more smoothly and efficiently.

It has been shown that good L1 readers do not transfer their good reading strategies when it comes to reading in L2. Clarke (1979) and Hosenfeld (1977) pointed out that there is a difference in the use of reading strategies by successful and unsuccessful readers.

In studying the reading strategies of successful and nonsuccessful ESL readers of varying language backgrounds, Block (1986) found that strategy use is a stable phenomenon which is not related to language background; native speakers of Chinese used the same strategies as native speakers of Spanish. In addition, use of cognitive strategies was not dependent on the English language proficiency of the readers. The main differences between proficient and nonproficient readers involved the extent to which they: (a) integrated new information with that in preceding sentences and paragraphs to form a connected version of the text; (b) recognized aspects of text structure; (c) used personal experiences and associations to relate these to the information in the passage; and (d) dealt with the message conveyed by the author rather than related the text ideas to themselves.

Because there was considerable individual variation among the nonproficient readers, Block suggests that teachers should look closely at their students before deciding what strategies to teach them. She seems to think that the nonproficient readers had all developed some useful strategies but were not able to apply them consistently and systematically. The answer, according to Block, might be in making poor readers aware of their dormant strategic resources, so that they can apply them more systematically. She suggests learner-centered practices, such as pairing readers so that they might talk to each other about what they do and do not understand as they read and share problems, knowledge, and use of strategies.

In discussing a first-year college reading syllabus, Beatie, Martin, and Oberst (1984) make the point that, if reading programs are to reflect what we know about the reading process, both materials and techniques should undergo some significant changes. Their survey of the treatment of reading in elementary college-level foreign language textbooks revealed significant weaknesses. Among these weaknesses was a lack of variety in the tasks which could be performed with a text as well as almost exclusive reliance on comprehension testing *via* a series of content questions in the target language which could often be answered by a direct quotation from the passage.

Until new reading materials are developed for all foreign languages, the burden of teaching students how to read in L2 will continue to fall on individual teachers, who will have to provide their students with both appropriate reading selections and appropriate reading tasks for developing efficient reading skills.

It must be pointed out, however, that making pedagogical recommendations on the basis of theoretical and experimental research is dangerous unless there is verification from classroom-based research that the recommended techniques actually bring about improvement in learning. Since there is so little research in the field of L2 reading, there is always the danger that research from reading in L1 or in ESL may not be fully generalizable to reading in other foreign languages, due to differences in age, background, and exposure. Techniques which apply at one level of proficiency may not apply at another level. There may be significant differences, particularly at the beginning stages, between learning to read in a cognate or a non-cognate language. Finally, since the field of L2 reading research is still in its infancy, no list of techniques can be exhaustive. The question remains, however, should we wait for definitive answers from research before trying out different reading techniques in our classrooms? This is a question individual teachers will have to answer for themselves.

Teachers who do wish to introduce proficiency-based elements into their reading programs will find listed below strategies believed to be frequently used by *good readers* and techniques which can help to develop these strategies. The list is partially adapted from Grellet (1981). The reading activities have one thing in common, that is, they are designed to make readers concentrate on the meaning of the passage rather than on its form.

a) Ability to anticipate (predict) what the text is going to be about. As discussed earlier, this ability is a key to efficient reading in the real world. Some prereading activities for developing this skill include:

(1) relating information in the text to prior knowledge about the topic through disscussion, answering questions, or writing definitions of key concept;
(2) generating appropriate questions about the text prior to reading it individually or in a group;
(3) using illustrations, titles, tables, charts, or other cues to predict what the text is likely to be about;
(4) using key-words to anticipate content of the text;
(5) using first line or first paragraph of a text to predict what it might be about.

b) Ability to build up expectancies while reading a text:

(1) using one paragraph to predict contents of the next one;
(2) using information in the text to complete unfinished paragraphs or create an ending or concluding paragraph to an unfinished passage;
(3) choosing the sentence which is most likely to follow;
(4) rejecting irrelevant information by crossing out the portion of the text that does not belong.

c) Ability to gist a text without getting bogged down in details:

(1) getting the gist of a short passage by placing it in an appropriate category (e.g., weather, sports, politics);
(2) selecting the most appropriate resume of the main idea

of the passage;
(3) identifying the main function of a passage (e.g., warning, explanation, description, instruction);
(4) choosing the most suitable title for a passage;
(5) matching titles with passages;
(6) matching illustrations with passages;
(7) matching subtitles with paragraphs;

(d) Ability to distinguish between levels of importance of information and logical relations in the text:

(1) outlining a causal chain of events in the text;
(2) finding the topic sentence and its relation to the rest of the text;
(3) distinguishing between the main idea and supporting details;
(4). completing a text outline;
(5) restoring chronological sequence or reordering events according to some scheme;
(6) determining top-level organization of the text (e.g., description, cause-effect, or problem-solution).

(e) Ability to locate specific information in the text by scanning:

(1) filling in charts, diagrams, tables, or forms, with facts, figures or other information in the text;
(2) using facts from a text to do something else (e.g., look at a movie guide to decide which show to go to, make arrangements with a friend, or call the box office).

In addition to the activities described above, the techniques listed below are best described as post-reading activities. They use a passage which has already been comprehended to develop transferable decoding skills at word, sentence, paragraph, and discourse levels.

(f) Ability to use lexical/semantic cues to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words:

(1) finding lexical contrasts (antonyms) in the text;
(2) recognizing related words (working with roots and affixes);
(3) filling in missing words (cloze) based on semantic cues;
(4) restoring incomplete words in context.

(g) Ability to use syntactic cues to deduce the meaning of words/

phrases/sentences:

(1) recognizing the main elements of a sentence (i.e., subject, predicate, and object);
(2) identifying other elements in a sentence such as modifiers, or spatial and temporal clauses;
(3) restoring word order in a sentence based on surrounding context;
(4) finding words that do not fit syntactically;
(5) filling in missing words (cloze) on the basis of syntactic cues. Many excellent suggestions for the use of different types of cloze exercises are given by Meyer and Tetrault (1986).

(h) Ability to use cohesive devices in a text to establish coherence of message:

(1) finding instances of anaphora, cataphora, pronominal and lexical conference and matching them with their referents;
(2) locating link words in the text and indicating their function;
(3) performing cloze exercises with missing link words;
(4) finding word chains in a text (i.e., all words that refer to a specific referent in order of their appearance in a text).

Conclusion

This paper surveyed some of the recent research on reading in L2 and examined its applications to selection of materials and design of activities aimed at developing efficient reading strategies. Arguments were presented for the use of authentic materials and problem-solving activities which concentrate on meaning rather than on form. Although there is an abundance of authentic materials, teachers and students need training in using them effectively in order to improve reading comprehension. This training includes assessing the degree of difficulty of texts, developing activities which are appropriate for these texts and the ability level of the students, and designing reading programs in which teachers help their students become aware of effective reading strategies.

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Author

Irene Thompson, Associate Professor of Russian, Department of Slavic Languages & Literatures, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20052. Specializations: L2 acquisition, L2 reading, L2 pedagogy (including materials development, classroom techniques, and testing), Russian syntax, and pragmatics.

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Error Treatment in the Adult Foreign Language Classroom

Charles Cole
Defense Language Institute

This article examines several studies which have investigated nonnative speaker (NNS) errors from a number of perspectives in an attempt to identify areas impacting on linguistic accuracy and the treatment of learner errors. The author claims that there are areas relating to accuracy and error treatment which transcend the traditional debate surrounding the issue of fossilization. These include: the L1 native speaker (NS) norm of self-repair; potential stigmatization resulting from a lack of grammatical accuracy in NNS speech; and strong learner preference for having teachers correct their errors. Also examined are specific issues relating to error treatment such as which errors should be treated, when, by whom and how. The conclusion is posited that linguistic accuracy should be viewed as an important educational goal in foreign language teaching and that it is facilitated by consistent, systematic teacher feedback to learners. It is further claimed that such feedback is essential to the systematic development of learner self-repair strategies.

Errors, errors, and more errors. They are often frustrating to classroom teachers, potentially embarrassing to learners, and fascinating to researchers examining the processes of second language acquisition. Numerous theories and much advice have been in evidence over the past twenty years concerning this complex phenomenon.[1]

For the purpose of my discussion of errors in the foreign language classroom and their treatment, I will use Michael Long's definition of error: "Any phonological, morphological, syntactic, or lexical deviance in the form of what students say from a standard variety of the target language" (Long, 1977: 279), adding only written errors (morphological, syntactic, and lexical).

It should be noted that errors as defined above fall into various categories. Richards (1971) classifies errors as either a) interlingual (i.e., transfer errors from the native language), b) intralingual, or c) developmental. It is now widely accepted in the foreign language teaching profession that errors are a natural phenomenon and that they are unavoidable. Errors also inform us as to the stage of development of a learner's interlanguage. Thus, I shall not attempt to discuss ways in which errors might be prevented (as was popular in the audiolingual days), but rather what we, as foreign language teachers in adult classroom learning settings, can, and perhaps should, do about them when they occur.

One aspect of error treatment which impacts significantly upon us in the DLI context is the issue of linguistic accuracy. Much debate has ensued on this point since Higgs and Clifford (1982) posited the potential of error fossilization if attention to accuracy is lacking from the outset of instruction. Comments on the validity of this claim seem to parallel a preferential continuum, ranging from those who would attempt to treat almost all errors (Hammerly, 1982) to those who oppose overt, explicit error correction (Magnan, 1979; Krashen, 1982; and Terrell, 1982 and 1987).

It is interesting to note that Higgs and Clifford have been criticized, at times severely, for their suggestion that fossilization of error patterns is a risk inherent in approaches which focus on meaning from the early phases of instruction without corresponding attention to form and grammatical accuracy. This position, it is claimed, is speculative and has not been documented by empirical evidence. It is equally interesting to note that no empirical evidence has been forthcoming to support claims made by Terrell (1982 and 1987) that learners not exposed to accuracy training or error treatment do not make more errors than those who have had such training.

On the other hand, Hammerly (1987) has cited important data from several longitudinal studies of French immersion programs in Canada, many of which tend to show that learners who are forced to communicate beyond their linguistic competence from early stages exhibit significant deficiencies in linguistic competence/accuracy, often after thousands of hours of instruction in quasi-naturalistic settings.

At issue here is not the need for learners to communicate, but rather the demands put on them (i.e., too much, too soon). Furthermore, my experience in adult classroom learning settings confirms Clifford's claim that "students learn to do what they practice doing," to which I would add, "and to the level of accuracy required of them."

I tend to agree with Vigil and Oller (1976), who claim that the level of accuracy achievable in the classroom is perhaps limited only by the standards set by the teacher. In other words, if we set a standard for accuracy and patiently help our students to develop strategies for enhancing linguistic accuracy, we can avoid the potentially hypocritical state of ignoring errors by hiding our inner irritation at them.

In this paper, I shall attempt to demonstrate that there are valid reasons for treating learner errors which transcend the traditional debate of the potential for error fossilization.

Potential for Stigmatization

Several interesting studies have been conducted to assess native speaker (NS) reaction to nonnative speaker (NNS) speech containing errors. Guntermann (1978) conducted a study of the reactions of NS of Spanish to error-laden NNS speech and concluded that "errors in grammar may be much more serious and worthy of avoidance and correction if learners wish to establish social and personal relations with their interlocutors" (Guntermann, 1978:252).

A similar study conducted by Chastain (1980) noted that such NNS speech in Spanish sometimes resulted in NS perceptions that these NNS were either not very intelligent or poorly educated. Chastain also found that "many comprehensible utterances containing errors were perceived by these NS of Spanish as unacceptable" (Chastain,1980: 214), suggesting that grammatical deficiencies may carry with them a high potential for social stigmatization.

Piazza (1980) studied the effect of grammatical errors on NS of French and found very low NS tolerance for errors involving verb forms and pronouns, especially in oral speech. Another such study of NS reaction to NNS French conducted by Ensz (1982) showed that grammar errors in NNS discourse were the most irritating and often the least tolerable type of error, leading her to conclude that:

> American speakers of French should be most concerned that they speak with the greatest possible grammatical accuracy. Since the French people in my sample, irrespective of sex, age, occupation, or home region in France, expressed a significant intolerance for grammatical errors, any course should highly prioritize the development of grammatically correct French in students' speaking habits.
>
> (Ensz, 1982: 137-8)

Similar NS reaction studies were conducted with NS of German by Politzer (1978) and Delisle (1982). Both studies showed that NS of German often react negatively to errors which, although they may not impede comprehensibility, are nevertheless judged to be low in terms of acceptability and tolerance.

In reviewing many of these studies, Ludwig (1982) noted that most concurred in the finding that vocabulary errors, especially those containing grammatical mistakes as well, comprised a very serious impediment to comprehension by NS. These studies suggest that accuracy is important and that to minimize its significance, for whatever theoretical or methodogical reasons, may risk stigmatizing our learners in their interactions with NS of the foreign language they are studying. This, in turn, would suggest that the development of learner strategies such as monitoring, error avoidance, and self-repair would seem to be quite valid educational goals.

Self-Repair in Native Language (L1) Speech

Another important area of error treatment relates to self-repair strategies observed in NS discourse. Self-repair refers to the ability of speakers to stop the stream of speech and self-correct any error(s) they have made in discourse.

Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) build a strong case for the view that self-repair is the predominantly preferred medium in NS interaction. They note that opportunities for self-repair are built into the conversational system of turn taking with the notable exception of adult-child L1 speech, which is "a device for dealing with those who are still learning or being taught to operate with a system which requires, for its routine operation, that they be adequate self-monitors and self-correctors as a condition of competence" (p. 381). This would clearly be the case in the FL classroom, and it is noteworthy that, despite Krashen's (1982) claims concerning the negative effects of *over-monitoring*, FL classroom instruction that focuses on the development of learner self-repair via monitoring seems to be in harmony with the development of devices and strategies actually used by NS in real-world, authentic communicative interactions.

Chun, Day, Chenoweth and Luppeson (1982) conducted a study concerning the preference for self-repair in natural discourse and found that NS correct their NNS interlocutors very rarely, supporting the findings of Schegloff. Allwright (1975a) stresses the importance in this regard of assisting the classroom learners to develop their own repair strategies to reduce dependency on the teacher.

Such findings suggest that linguistic independence in the form of self-repair competence is a valid educational goal, especially in programs focusing on the development of linguistic accuracy as well as fluency.

The Issue of the Affective Filter

Opposition to overt, explicit error treatment is often based on theoretical and methodological concerns. For example, Krashen (1982) and Terrell (1982 and 1987) both state that their primary concern in avoiding overt error treatment applies to **acquisitional** environments versus **learning** environments.[2] For Krashen and Terrell acquisition, is preferable to learning and they urge that overt error treatment in acquisitionally-oriented environments be avoided so as to keep the "affective filter" (i.e., negative psychological/motivational factors) low, especially during communicative activities.

It is, however, quite possible that avoiding error treatment may have precisely the opposite effect; i.e., that of raising the level of learner anxiety! In fact, several studies have shown a strong learner preference to have teachers correct their errors. In one such study, conducted by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), it was found that of 188 adult ESL learners surveyed, 111 wanted their errors corrected all the time, with another 25 wanting "most" of their errors corrected. As to Krashen's (1982) claim about the necessity of avoiding error treatment during communicative activities, it is interesting to note that **all** 188 learners in the Cathcart and Olsen study wanted their oral errors to be corrected.

Similarly, an informal study conducted at DLI in 1988 by Master of Arts in Teaching of Foreign Languages (MATFL) students surveyed 80 learners across several language departments to elicit their preference for and evaluation of various classroom activities. These learners were asked to rate a number of classroom teaching/learning processes on a scale of 0-4, with 0 indicating no value and 4 indicating a very high value for the given process/practice/activity. In response to a question concerning the benefits to be derived from teacher treatment of errors, this group of 80 learners assigned a mean rating of 3.41.

Lest the reader infer that this strong preference for error treatment on the part of learners is to be found only in classroom environments, a study conducted by Chenoweth, Dat, Chun and Luppescal (1983) found a very strong preference for error correction among 400 adult ESL learners in a naturalistic, acquisitional environment.

In addition to studies examining learner preferences for error treatment, other researchers have questioned the validity of the hypothesis that error treatment necessarily results in raising the learner's affective filter. Van Lier (1988) notes that there are many classroom learning activities in which "interruptions for repair, error-replacement, helping, etc., do not constitute floor threats in the same way that such interruptions might in general conversation... and in many cases they may be welcomed, if not actually invited, by the learner" (p. 204).

Brown (1979) suggests that corrective error feedback be conducted in a positive, professional, and supportive manner. Vigil and Oller (1976) claim that "frequent instances of negative **cognitive** feedback are not likely to do any harm and, in fact, are probably essential to a high level of attainment on the part of learners in foreign language classrooms" (p. 294). Chaudron (forthcoming) adds that, if learners fail to receive such feedback, there is a potential for them to assume that their faulty utterances are appropriate or correct.

Thus, it would seem that if learners perceive error treatment as desirable feedback, and that if many researchers in our field have found such feedback to be a necessary part of FL instruction, then withholding such feedback could, as hypothesized above, actually result in raising the learner's affective filter and, consequently, have a negative impact on the classroom learning process.

Specific Issues of Error Treatment

If, for the reasons outlined above, we assume that feedback to the learner in the form of error treatment is necessary and potentially beneficial to FL learners, then a number of issues raised by Hendrickson (1978) merit discussion.

When Should Learner Errors be Treated?

It would seem that the methodology of error treatment should vary significantly across classroom activity types. The more time and conscious effort the learners can apply to planning their utterances (e.g., in written compositions outside the classroom), the greater should be the amount and intensity of teacher probing as a technique for developing self-monitoring and self-repair. Conversely, in environments such as spontaneous oral communication in the classroom, the more instantaneous will be the teacher's decision as to when to point out errors to the learner and how to treat them (Allwright, 1975b).

The issue of treating oral errors in free-flow conversation is a complex one that requires the teacher to walk a fine line between providing sufficient feedback, while at the same time not interrupting so often as to frustrate, confuse, and discourage the learner. Hendrickson (1978) suggests that taping student conversations and later conducting editing/correcting sessions with individual learners may offer a solution to this dilemma.

My classroom experience has indicated that such taping activities can be extremely effective and motivating, provided they are properly explained to the learners and organized and conducted in a gradual, progressive way, i.e., beginning with phonological and lexical errors and progressing to grammatical and later syntactic errors as the linguistic inventory and competence of the learners increase.

I also agree with Hammerly (1982) that error treatment in support of developing learner self-repair strategies must begin from the earliest phases of instruction. For the purposes of the current discussion, suffice it to say that the groundwork for linguistic accuracy must be laid from the outset and that the focus should be on devices which will permit the learners to refer to their previous errors on a regular basis, e.g., learner-voiced tapes with accompanying discussion notes and learner-corrected copies of written work containing teacher-identified errors.

Which learner errors should be treated?

This issue has prompted much debate, and there does not appear to be general consensus concerning it. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) seem to favor concentrating correction/treatment on "global" errors versus "local" errors. They define global errors as those adversely affecting comprehensibility and local errors as being mainly performance errors which do not exhibit a major impact on the message being conveyed.

Others have attempted to create hierarchies of error types and suggest that errors thus be prioritized for treatment according to these categories. For example, Hammerly (1982: 278) advises that teachers treat errors according to the priorities implied in the following hierarchy:

1. Errors interfering with the intelligibility of the message to a monolingual NS;
2. Errors that are unacceptable/irritating to a NS;
3. Errors involving rules that have already been taught;
4. Frequent errors of any kind (presumably "patterned" errors);
5. Errors resulting from venturing into linguistically unknown territory, especially those showing L1 interference (i.e., Richards' "interlingual" errors).

I find several problems with the creation of such hierarchies. First, I believe it would be extremely difficult to make treatment decisions spontaneously in the classroom based on such *error inventories*. This could lead to inconsistency in error feedback, as noted in studies conducted by Fanselow (1977) and Chaudron (1977). Such inconsistency, in turn, might well create confusion and frustration for the learner.

Second, in addition to being cumbersome to identify and categorize, such error hierarchies might be very difficult to explain to the learner. In fact, during informal classroom observations, I have often heard learners ask how they are supposed to know which errors will affect comprehensibility, or which will irritate NS.

How Should Learner Errors Be Treated?

I agree with Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1980) that FL teachers have to develop their own **systematic** approach to this matter. One interesting proposal which exemplifies such systematicity was posited by Taylor (1980), which he called a "remedial approach" to error treatment. This technique consists of a systematic, multi-phased remedial program as follows:

Stage 1: A review of the syntax that has been incompletely learned; [3]

Stage 2: Contrasting the errors with the correct forms (at the intellectualization level);

Stage 3: Drills and exercises designed to help learners practice the correct(ed) forms; (Note: Taylor stresses that such exercises must be designed to force the students to **think** about what they are doing, rather than involving them in purely mechanical processes).

Stage 4: Re-reviews, not as intensive as the above stages, but recurring at regular intervals to ensure that errors have indeed been repaired by the learners themselves.

(adapted from Taylor, 1980: 149-51)

My classroom experience indicates that, if we are in fact to develop self-repair strategies in our learners, we must approach error treatment in an organized, systematic way, such as proposed by Taylor. All too often teachers simply provide the correct response without actually treating errors. We then wonder why the same errors continue to surface. I believe that only the learner himself can truly *correct* errors and that our main concern should focus on assisting learners in developing systematic self-repair strategies.

Error treatment techniques, then, should include, among others, the following:

a) taping, at least from time to time, student oral reports and other learner attempts at oral production and conducting analysis sessions during which the teacher can patiently point out to the learner all phonological, morphological, and syntactic errors. All learners should keep their own tapes, with notes made during error analysis sessions, for future reference and review;

b) having learners do written compositions in L2 from time to time, with the teacher *treating* the errors by highlighting them for learner self-correction/repair. This mode of error treatment not only develops learner self-repair strategies and abilities but also provides each learner with a written record of their errors for future reference and ongoing review;

c) maintaining and sharing with each learner *error diagnostic charts* (see Cohen, 1975 and Cohen and Robbins, 1976), which list patterned errors recorded from homework assignments and tests. Such diagnostic charts, when used in conjunction with (a) and (b) above, will help learners to focus on error types which re-occur over time, thus assisting learners to concentrate their review efforts on such error patterns.

Who Should Treat Learner Errors

This is arguably the most crucial issue under discussion in the area of the treatment of learner errors in the classroom. As has been stated, the L1 NS norm is self-repair. It is my claim that this should be the ultimate goal of our efforts to treat and, eventually, to *correct* errors (in the truest sense of the word).

Numerous researchers (George, 1972; Gorbet, 1974; Allwright, 1975b; Valdman, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Fanselow, 1977; Long, 1977; Henrickson, 1978; Hammerly, 1982; and Van Lier, 1988) strongly support the idea of encouraging learners to develop an awareness of their own errors and thus develop a systematic way of approaching self-repair through monitoring and self-correction.

Hammerly (1982) suggests that self-monitoring/repair can be taught by gradually shifting the focus of classroom error treatment over time. Hammerly proposes a system which evolves as illustrated below:

Stage 1: teacher-elicited; repair by teacher
Stage 2: teacher-elicited; repair by peer(s) [4]
Stage 3: teacher/peer elicited; self-repaired
Stage 4: self-elicited; self-repaired

(adapted from Hammerly, 1982: 281)

Conclusion

In this paper, I have attempted to demonstrate that the issue of accuracy has implications far beyond the often debated question of fossilization. As numerous studies have shown, linguistic accuracy is often perceived by NS as an important component of the comprehensibility of NNS utterances and has an effect on the interactional and social aspects of conversation, especially at the perception level. Additionally, many learners apparently want teachers to provide meaningful feedback in the form of error treatment and to withhold such feedback may not only risk frustrating learners, but might well deprive them of a necessary component of communicative competence, i.e., that of a system necessary for actualizing self-repair.

I believe that foreign language teachers must strive to develop a systematic, well-organized, and consistent approach to error treatment and must ensure that learners are made aware of the importance of developing strategies which will result in their linguistic independence from the teacher in the long-term. Such error treatment should begin at the outset of an adult FL classroom program of instruction and should proceed gradually to the point at which learners are able to repair their own utterances systematically and effectively.

Although I have cited examples of such systematic approaches to error treatment, it is not my intention that such models should be accepted as the final word or as the **only** way to approach this important area of classroom teaching. Rather, foreign language teachers must make their own decisions as to how to deal with the phenomenon of learner errors, based on a thorough analysis of the final and interim objectives of a given learner population, the psychological and cognitive attributes and styles of those learners, and in a way which will be harmonious with the teacher's methodological approach and preferences for techniques.

Finally, as to the seemingly endless theoretical and methodological advice submitted for the consideration of classroom practitioners for error treatment, I would point the attention of the reader to the following words of caution offered by Professor Paul Meara:

> The way we have subordinated ourselves to the theoretical concerns of others is something that has done us lasting harm. The only way in which we are going to alter this state of affairs is for us to work out what our own priorities are, and then to become more self-confident and assertive about pursuing them.
>
> (Meara, 1983: 131-2)

Notes

1. For a detailed review of contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interlanguage theory regarding the phenomenon of learner errors, see Corder (1967), Richards (1974 and 1975), Spolsky (1979), and Sridhar (1980).

2. For a detailed discussion of this hypothesized difference, see Krashen (1982) and McLaughlin (1987).

3. Several interesting suggestions have been proposed for identifying specific learner errors and error patterns for remedial purposes. One such method involves the use of error diagnostic charts (see Cohen, 1975 and Cohen and Robbins, 1976).

4. Referred to as "delegated repair" by Rehbein (1984).

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Author

Charles Cole, Academic Coordinator, School of Russian Studies, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: foreign language teaching, error analysis.

Components of Language Proficiency

John Lett

Introduction

The diagram which accompanies these words has evolved over the years. It was originally developed for use in my teacher education courses at the University of Illinois, where I used it as a teaching aid to help my future teachers understand just what it was they were going to be teaching. For example, my syllabus included overt lessons on how to teach phonology, vocabulary, and grammar, as well as how to develop each of the four skill modalities. I used the two-way matrix to illustrate the mutually inter-dependent relationships between the two ways of approaching the teaching-learning task. Similarly, when my syllabus called for explicit attention to the concept of teaching toward "communicative competence," or "functional proficiency," I used the matrix plus the rectangular box below it, appropriately labeled. Since joining DLIFLC, I have found the diagram a useful way to communicate the complexity of the language learning task to colleagues in various agencies and services, and have added the third dimension in order to display a more comprehensive representation of the components of language proficiency. The figure has been particularly useful when communicating with non-linguist military managers, and even with experienced military linguists, who may have learned one or more languages well and may have applied them in specific job environments, but who sometimes lack the broad perspective of those who have been trained in linguistic analysis or language pedagogy. I am aware, of course, that there are additional aspects of language and language use which could be added to this model, and that others might arrange these same features in different ways. However, I am happy to share this particular tool as I have constructed it, for whatever heuristic or other value it may have.

Commentary

The following are comments similar to those which I tend to make when I share the model, usually with personnel who have not

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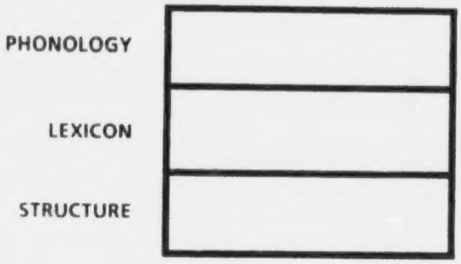
This paper was presented by Mahmood Taba Tabai, Chief, DLIFLC Curriculum Division, at the September, 1987, meeting of the Interagency Language Roundtable.

been trained as foreign language educators. The numbers and paragraphs are keyed to the five transparencies (or the set of one transparency plus overlays), or the sequence in which I sketch the various components on a chalkboard or flip chart.

1. Traditional approaches to the study of language, as well as the intuitive awareness of most people who have been exposed to the study of a language, begin with the recognition that language systems may be viewed as consisting of three components: the sound system, the lexicon, and the grammatical structure of the language in question.

CHART 1



2. Teachers and material developers also find it useful to consider the fact that knowledge of those three components may be acquired and displayed through any of the four skill modalities--listening, reading, speaking, and writing, although the learning tasks and cognitive processes vary across the cells. For example, the possession of an extensive recognition vocabulary does not necessarily imply that one will be able to choose words with precision when speaking. Similarly, it is useful to observe that in practice exercises aimed at the development of, for example, the speaking skill, one may choose to emphasize the contribution of any or all of

the three language components. (It is admittedly true, of course, that in the case of phonology, the two cells created by its intersection with reading and writing are a bit less face valid than those crossing phonology with listening and speaking. However, all other cells appear to be quite viable.) The use of a matrix such as this helps to draw attention to the fact that choices are inevitably made, even if covert, in the selection of component-modality cells for classroom emphasis, course and lesson design, etc., and that it is probably better to make such choices overtly, on some principled basis, than to let them occur as uncontrolled correlates of other instructional decisions.

CHART 2

	L	R	S	W
PHONOLOGY				
LEXICON				
STRUCTURE				

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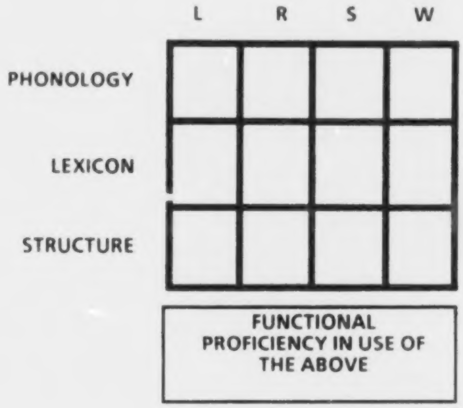
3. Despite the usefulness of the 3 x 4 matrix, the elements depicted therein are not sufficient to fully specify the components of language proficiency. Over the last decade and a half, the foreign language education profession has recognized and documented that, when it comes to language learning, the whole is definitely greater than the sum of its parts. That is, from the perspective of correlational research designs, knowledge of students' scores on an array of measures of phonology, vocabulary, and grammar, even if assessed through several skill modalities, is not sufficient to adequately predict their success on measures of functional proficiency. These insights were first brought to widespread

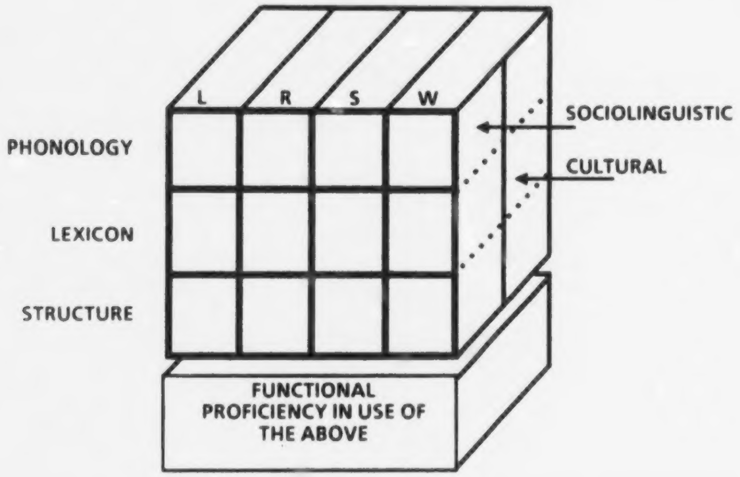
attention in the early seventies, through Sandra Sauvignon's adaptation of Dell Hymes' model of "communicative competence" to the foreign language classroom. On the basis of her study and others like it, it has now become common knowledge that, if one expects students to develop the ability to produce and understand novel utterances in a foreign language in order to communicate meaning (rather than to demonstrate knowledge and/or skill in some finite, usually pre-specified, domain), then one must provide a psychological and pedagogical environment which facilitates practice in so doing.

CHART 3



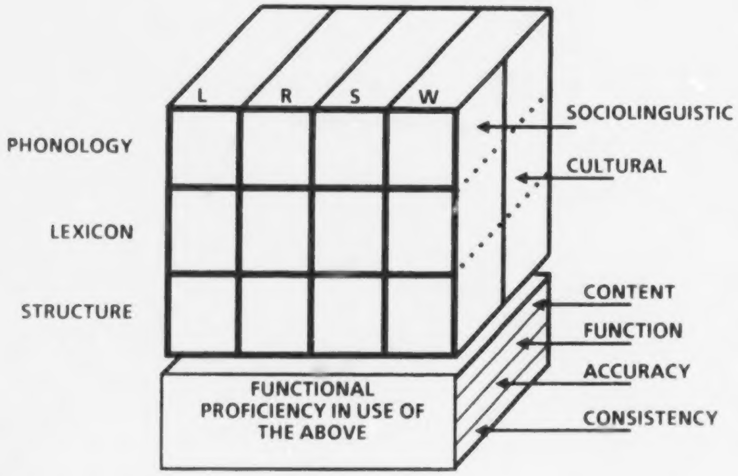
4. Even with the addition of the "proficiency" box underlying the component-skill matrix, the analysis of the components of language proficiency is not complete, for the cultural and sociolinguistic norms governing language usage vary both across and within language groups. Thus, for example, complete communicative competence would require not only knowing that, in a given culture, it is appropriate to express sympathy overtly in the event of a death in the family, but also that the precise manner in which one does so may vary according to the sex of each interlocutor, their relative ages and social status, whether they share rural or urban values, etc.

CHART 4


L
R
S
W
PHONOLOGY
LEXICON
STRUCTURE
SOCIOLINGUISTIC
CULTURAL
FUNCTIONAL PROFICIENCY IN USE OF THE ABOVE

5. Finally, in order to fully specify the construct, "functional proficiency," one must consider as a minimum those dimensions which are most clearly addressed in the ILR level descriptions, i.e., the three components of the "functional trisection" (functions, content, and accuracy), and the consistency with which an examinee can display his or her proficiency with regard to those dimensions.

CHART 5


L
R
S
W
PHONOLOGY
LEXICON
STRUCTURE
SOCIOLINGUISTIC
CULTURAL
CONTENT
FUNCTION
ACCURACY
CONSISTENCY
FUNCTIONAL PROFICIENCY IN USE OF THE ABOVE

Summary

The elaboration and presentation of this model should not be viewed as an attempt to build a rigorous, self-contained model of human language. To address adequately all the parameters of the various disciplines involved--applied linguistics, socio- and psycholinguistics, discourse analysis, communication theory, etc.--would be a much more daunting undertaking, which would require much more extensive modeling than that which is presented here. Nevertheless, I believe the present model to be a useful device in several ways. In a teaching or briefing context, it provides an organized way to introduce the complexity of the language learning and teaching process, and to present the evolution of the way foreign language educators have defined their task--and their horizons--over the last several decades. Simultaneously, it can serve as a job aid for program evaluators, curriculum designers, course writers, test developers, and teacher educators, by helping such personnel focus their attention systematically and explicitly on the various aspects of language that are depicted in the model, thus reducing the likelihood that some aspects may be unaddressed or that implicit assumptions may go unrecognized and, therefore, unexamined.

Author

John A. Lett, Jr., Chief, Research Division, Directorate of Evaluation and Standardization, DLIFLC,. Research Interests: foreign lan-guage testing, teacher education, application of educational technology to foreign language education, models of classroom language learning/acquisition.

Dealing with Underachievers in a Classroom

Anna Kordecki

You will find poor students, or rather underachievers virtually in every class. What are your feelings about them? You may be sympathetic to their personal problems, or upset when they hold back an otherwise smoothly running class. You feel satisfaction when you see slow but steady progress achieved, thanks to your help and patience.

Although methodological courses and printed materials offered by DLIFLC assume that all students work at the same pace and are willing to participate in all kinds of activities, the reality is different. You may have a student who is not able to utter a single sentence, or resents the idea of "playing" in a classroom? How would you deal with such a student? Your reaction would largely depend on the type of an underachiever you are dealing with.

Defensive students will do anything not to acknowledge their own shortcomings. Putting the blame on outdated textbooks, poor teachers, or his own mood is all too familiar to us. I remember a student who directed his frustration toward the textbook when his academic problems became apparent. I told him tactfully that errors in the book did not prevent others from learning the language. As could have been predicted, the student immediately found another excuse. He could not concentrate on his homework due to terrible headaches. He scheduled his medical appointments on the days of tests and quizzes. During a brief counseling session, I expressed my concern about the student's problems and I asked him to make his appointments in such a way that they would not interfere with his tests. I made him realize that procrastination did not help, since the results of tests which he had to take anyway did not show any improvement. The next excuse my student came up with was supposed to make me feel sorry for him. He missed a whole week of school because he had to drive around the country looking for his runaway children. How could he concentrate on studying while he had serious family problems? I didn't listen to the details of his complicated story. I advised him to establish his priorities. And he did. In two weeks, he caught up with the rest of the class and he graduated with results slightly below average.

I used to have a student whose extreme frustration with his inability to learn Polish made him **aggressive** towards both his colleagues and his teachers. With this type of an underachiever, I had to be particularly careful with what I said in the classroom. One day I complemented my student on his new haircut, and he responded with a rude remark. I had to be perfectly accurate correcting his tests, since he was ready to fight for every quarter of a point. Whenever his colleagues laughed at his embarrassing mistakes, he would burst with anger. He happened to be a class monitor. When I was counseling him, I tried to find out as much as possible about his background. It turned out that he had graduated with honors from a college and had become a successful manager in a computer business. Polish was the first failure in his life. After our conversation, his aggression disappeared gradually. Remediation classes, however, did not result in any improvement. At a certain point, I asked the student if he would consider changing schools to suit his abilities better. I told him that I never regretted my own decision years ago to give up studies which were in total disagreement with my interests. My reasoning finally convinced him. After he was dropped from DLIFLC, he immediately went to another school. To my great astonishment (and personal satisfaction), this student showed up at his former class's graduation ceremony. He told me how happy he was with his new school and how thrilled he was about his prospective job.

Passive students usually do not care about the results; they become more and more withdrawn as others progress. I remember a student who gave up all efforts when she decided she could not catch up with the rest of the class. The only answer I heard from her in a classroom was, "I don't know how to say it." Before long, I realized that a lack of self-confidence rather than anything else was her problem. I decided I could not let her get away with her "I don't know." I almost forced her to speak by saying: "Say whatever you think it should be," to which she would reply: "O. K., if you want me to say it, I will, but it's going to be wrong." I asked her to let me decide if her answer was right or wrong. My remarks worked; they made her talk. I praised her in front of the whole class for well-prepared assignments. I got to know her personal interests and every Monday I asked her about the concerts she attended and the places she saw during the weekend. This personal attention was an excellent confidence builder and pretty soon she became an active participant in all classroom activities. After several remedial classes, she was able to study on her own.

In addition to the ways of dealing with underachievers on an everyday basis, a teacher should work out the techniques of involving them in classroom activities, so that students do not feel ignored, rejected, or merely tolerated. For example, when introducing new material make sure that you practice it for a little while with good students before you ask your underachiever. Similarly, when practicing pronunciation have the whole class repeat a word after you, then ask individual students to repeat the word. Next provide a model utterance for each one of the words, and only then ask your underachiever. If they still have difficulties, have them repeat a word with you.

Additionally, extracurricular activities are a great occasion to make underachievers feel a worthy part of a class. You may have them answer *yes/no* questions in a *twenty questions* game. Let them show their inventiveness, for example, in planning a picnic or role playing in a classroom; you may even ask them to assign the roles to each other.

You should be tactful, but at the same time, not overly lenient when dealing with the underachievers' mistakes or their lack of response. Do not wait too long for an answer: Give the student a hint, and if you get a wrong answer, say: "Not quite so, try again." Eventually, you should provide the right answer. Praise your underachiever for every small success, but not for every correct answer. While well-deserved praise can work miracles, the student will very soon figure that too frequent words of praise are meaningless.

Assign simple tasks to underachievers, especially passive ones, to make them feel that there are tasks they can do right. Ask them to prepare teaching aids, have them do the easiest drill and exercise leads. Remember, however, that they need to have their little challenges, too.

Talented students make progress by the very fact that they are exposed to the language for six hours a day. On the other hand, what happens to an underachiever depends largely on the teacher. I hope that my observations will help you create a better and more productive teaching environment, get rid of the underachievers' frustration and relieve unnecessary tension often present in classes with poor students.

Author

Anna T. Kordecki, Instructor, Polish Department, School of East European Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: studies of bilingualism, psycholinguistics, error analysis, contrastive studies.

Communicative Vocabulary Review

Grazyna Dudney

With the graduation proficiency level requirement for our students raised to 2, 2, 1, it is important to keep in mind that communicative language teaching based on Dell Hymes' idea of communicative competence is an approach that is consistent with DLI's ultimate goal of producing linguists who can successfully function in the authentic target language environment. The message for us DLI teachers is to try to make our instruction as communicative as possible.

Many of us fear vocabulary reviews, especially if they are thematic, that is, pertaining to one subject, for example, food, clothing, music, buildings, or other topics. We face a long list of vocabulary items and their English equivalents, with 50 minutes "to kill." We usually ask our students to follow the list from top to bottom forming abstract sentences or asking each other questions. In both cases the lesson is typically boring and highly uncommunicative. Sentences generated by students are rarely an expression of their true feelings or opinions. There is no meaningful task involved, and there is no information gap, which is one basic condition for communication.

I want to suggest an alternative lesson plan that will make a vocabulary review more productive and less painful for both the students and the instructor. Let us assume that the subject is clothing. After a few lead-in activities (for example some basic general or personalized questions), pairs of students are situated in different corners of the classroom. Each pair receives an envelope with two cut out stick figures of people, drawings or pictures of clothing (magazines are a great source for such materials), and a card with instructions in the target language. Each pair receives different instructions. The instructions might be, for example, "You and your friend are planning a trip to the Rocky Mountains in late October. Please decide which clothes you will take on your trip and why," or "Your colleague and you are invited to a beach party which will last from 2 PM until midnight. Choose the right clothes for the party. Be able to defend your choice." After this phase of the lesson, which can take 10 to 20 minutes, each pair of students are asked to present their choice of clothes to the whole class. A general discussion follows each presentation centered around the reaction of the rest of the students to the pair's choice of clothes.

This lesson plan not only requires minimal preparation on the part of an instructor but it is also very easily adapted to different subjects and to the individual needs of a class. For example, by changing the pictures or the instructions on the cards, it is possible to raise or lower the level of task difficulty. Less advanced students may be given different colored pencils to color their pictures and thus to practice colors. Another variation could be achieved by giving each pair of students their own magazine to cut up and have them create their own scenarios.

The activity described above is a very effective way of reviewing vocabulary. It enhances meaningful communication in face-to-face interaction and thus helps create intrinsic student motivation. The amount of teacher talk is vastly reduced in favor of student talk. In fact, the teacher may assume the role of a tactful negotiator or a helpful observer. Contextualization, personalization, the carrying out of meaningful tasks, and the students' struggle to convey a message are all indispensable aspects of achieving the desired goal of communicative competence.

My own experiences with the above described lesson have always been very positive. Each time I have used it, my class has turned into a beehive. My students have become so involved in conversation that they were reluctant to stop at the break. On the whole, it was a very pleasant and, I believe, a valuable experience.

Author

Grazyna Dudney, Chairperson, Polish Department, School of East European Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: sociolinguistics, applied linguistics.

Interactive Video Authoring in Teaching Foreign Languages

Maksoud N. Feghali

While many educators and course writers are adopting modern technology to provide better language teaching, others feel that technology, such as computer-assisted video, may be a threat to a job that is much less in demand. They prefer to adhere to the conventional methods of teaching for the following reasons:

A. To operate computer-assisted video in the classroom requires certain skills that may be hard to acquire. Such technophobia is due mainly to the great divergence between the humanities and the sciences. The new technology is viewed as a luxurious burden that some sophisticated educators are trying to impose upon them.

B. Modern technology and new methodologies in teaching foreign languages are costly and may be useless. For years, textbooks and chalkboards, and knowledgeable instructors have achieved excellent results. Simple tools and a dedicated teacher may do well without these *push button* machines in the classroom.

The response to these remarks is based on a classroom observation where computer assisted video was extensively used by the instructor. The use of such equipment demands the full and constant attention of the instructor; hence, there is no threat of a machine replacing a person. The instructor assumes not only the role of the programmer but of the operator as well. He has to be fully alert to the needs of his students and should introduce an adequate dose of new materials, or switch activities when appropriate. Furthermore, in a class equipped with computer-assisted video, the teacher is indispensable because a power shortage or a technical error will affect only the means and not the end.

As for the training and the skills needed to operate computer-assisted video, it is proper to state that any motivated instructor is capable of operating the set and authoring his own video lessons. A two-week course in interactive video authoring will acquaint the instructors with the software and will enable them to author and design their lessons. Such courses will provide the learner with the knowledge of modern technology, knowledge that is needed among teachers of the humanities. It is imperative nowadays for those educators to meet their colleagues halfway in the scientific fields and work together toward progress and better communication in the world.

In addition to providing useful and technical knowledge to the instructor, computer-assisted video authoring expands the horizon for a multitude of activities that textbooks and chalkboards could never match. Video authoring enhances educational programs and enables instructors to custom tailor lesson components in a fashion that appeals to the students' taste and satisfies curriculum requirements. It also provides instructors with a new approach to teach the sound and script of a foreign alphabet. Instructors could graphically author such an alphabet and present each letter on the video screen. They could also model on the screen the pattern and the movements involved in writing each letter in different positions. They may test the students' retention by projecting different words containing a particular letter in an initial, middle, or final position and asking them to identify it. Such techniques are particularly helpful when teaching Arabic, Chinese, or other complicated scripts. It may be repeated or modified until the objectives are met.

Furthermore, interactive video authoring may be the most effective tool in learning foreign language vocabulary. It enables the students to learn new vocabulary in real life situations with the proper accent, the right intonation, and gestures. A video situation, for instance, at the airport will provide the students with the vocabulary pertaining to traveling. Airplane, ticket, reservation, luggage, gate, seat, and many other relevant words become more meaningful when they are associated with a real life situation. In addition, the video sequence will urge the students to think of the items they need when they go on a trip. It will generate more questions and answers in the target language and it will eventually lead to the use of other significant vocabulary.

Instructors often forget to stress the importance of culture when they teach a foreign language. Some of them even question the validity of such a notion. They do not think that teaching the language of a country should necessarily involve teaching the culture of that country. The majority of educators believe, luckily,that language and culture are undivided. Thus, it appears that injecting some cultural background in a foreign language class is very useful, and interactive video authoring could convey it accurately to the students. Students of Arabic, for instance, will learn through their first video-assisted lesson that Arabs stand up when they greet visitors or guests. They will also learn that it is insulting to let the soles of their shoes face another person. In some Arab countries, one does not go to the airport snack-bar and order a glass of whisky and a ham sandwich. The author of a video sequence may create a scene at an airport in an Arab country during which a passenger goes to the snack-bar, reads the menu and orders a cup of coffee and a bowl of salad. That scene will imply to their students that alcohol and pork do not appear on snack-bar menus in those countries.

A real life situation sequence may be authored to conduct other classroom activities, or to present certain grammatical features. A dialog between a passenger and a ticket agent could be divided into different scenes, each scene introduced to the students in different ways. For example, an instructor may present a scene while the audio is shut off, then ask the students to play the role of the two persons. The instructor may also present a video segment of the dialogue with the audio on, then ask the students to act out a logical continuation of that dialog.

If the objectives of the lesson are to emphasize certain grammatical features, instructors may author the text of the dialog and show it on the video screen with verbs, adverbs, adjectives and other parts of speech typed in different colors, or underlined. This arrangement will signal to the students that the function of these parts of speech is important to the lesson.

Additionally, interactive video authoring allows instructors to develop tests, quizzes, and many other drills as well. Thus, this type of activities will help the students to correct their mistakes and improve their language skills.

Despite all the advantages that modern technology has contributed to our society, one should not forget that it is up to each individual to adopt or to reject such technology. If scientists, physicians, and pilots were content with what they had, we would have never seen electronics, laser surgery, or outer space. To use conventional means in teaching foreign languages is to be commended, but to explore modern technology is highly recommended.

Author

Maksoud N. Feghali. Instructor of Modern Standard Arabic and Syrian Dialect, School of Middle East Languages. Defense Language Institute. Interests: foreign language instruction, testing.

The 'Far Side' Treatment

Michel Nicola

Your class is sluggish. For some reason, they can hardly stay awake. What do you do?

Of course, this is a general teaching problem in no way limited to the language class, but as we shall see, there are ways of language teaching that can be effectively used in such situations. One solution, which I have been using over the years, is what may be called the "Far Side" treatment. Simply stated, this consists of turning class conversation into the realm of the unexpected, by means of talk that may be grossly absurd, grossly exaggerated, or even outrageous.

Illustration 1 (Subjects: Broadcasts, Women's Liberation)

Pat and Alice are regressing into the world of slumber, under the influence of Steve, who is already dreaming. This influence is spreading fast to the remaining students. It is the start of the hour, and the prospect of teaching this lump of weights--the official language of broadcasts and women's liberation for fifty minutes--begins to horrify me. I decide to try something unusual.

"Fred," I say (Fred is still awake enough to respond), "ask Alice if she listens to the radio." Between the time of his question and Alice's response, which could have been a good five minutes, I say:

"Pat, tell him: 'she listens, but does not understand anything.'"

The general sleepiness seems to become arrested. Pat smiles and is more than usually quick to formulate this uncompliment. Alice, perhaps a little offended, smiles and says, "thank you" to me. But as soon as Pat finishes speaking I say, "Alice, tell her: 'What are you saying? I understand better than you do!' "

Thus, I started an argument which, even though it was simulated, succeeded in raising the level of alertness of the class a notch. Each side tried to outdo the other the best they could. After this had been exhausted and the argument sagged, I asked Steve, who had just begun to open his eyes to say, "You both do not understand anything. You are only women!"

The two erstwhile opponents suddenly became allies and lashed at the ostensible chauvinist with words like, "You pig!" "What do you know, you have been asleep all the time?" Of course, much of this was really meant for me, but there were people, both males and females, who spoke in support of this statement in the same tongue-in-cheek manner in which it was made. Everyone was wide awake and had something to say, and wanted to say it, no matter how hard they had to hit their heads against the considerable language barrier.

Before we knew it, the 50 minutes were over. We had covered what we had to and many other things as well, which people say every-day, no matter what subject they may be talking about (e.g., "What . . ." "you both," "nonsense!" "I agree with you . . .," etc.)

In illustrations 2 and 3, only the outlines of the dialog are given; the details of the class activities were similar to those of illustration 1.

Illustration 2 (Subject: Elections, Systems of Government)

A. Are you running for an office?
B. Yes, I am running for the presidency of the world!
A. An insignificant position for a man like you.
C. But the world is not a republic. Its system of government is a monarchy.
B. All right, I am running for king.
C. Watch out! Don't try to usurp my position!

Illustration 3 (Subject: Physical Ailments)

A. What's the matter with you? You do not look well.
B. I have a headache.
A. So sorry. Do you often have headaches?
B. Yes, quite often.
A. Your head must have worn out. Get rid of it and get yourself a donkey's head.
B. All right, give me yours!

Two characteristics of language instruction are exploited here. First, in the language class nearly every subject can be dealt with in this "Far Side" manner, which is not the case in other classes such as mathematics. Second, being involved at the emotional level, even if this involvement is not quite real, is very effective in learning a language. According to the Input Hypothesis, language is acquired by going for meaning, by focusing on what is said rather than how it is said. This, however, does not have to be only in the intellectual sense, but can actually be more effective at the emotional level. We do not easily forget words said in anger or in ecstasy, even when they are in another language.

Of course, there are dangers in using this method. Teachers must be quite judicious in telling students what to say; they must be sure that the words they suggest will not create hard feelings. The device can be dynamite if correctly used, but in the hands of the unskillful user, it can blow up the wrong thing.

Author

Michel Nicola, Instructor, School of Middle East Languages, Arabic Department B, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: communicative methods in the teaching of formal Arabic, comparing theories in second language acquisition and in physics.

REVIEW

Polish Individualized Instruction, (1984-1987). Columbus: Ohio State University.

Basic Texts:
Krzyzanowski, Jerzy P., Mirski, Zbigniew, & Roney, Deborah W. (1986). *Elementary Polish 1*. Pp. ii, 224. $13, paper (Instructor Manual, $10; Audio Cassettes, *$40*). *Elementary Polish 2*. Pp. ii, 226. $13.25, paper (Instructor Manual, $13.25; Audio Cassettes, $60). *Intermediate Polish 1*. Pp. ii, 234. $13.75, paper (Instructor Manual, $13.75; Audio Cassettes, $70). *Intermediate Polish 2*. Pp. ii, 230. $13.75, paper (Instructor Manual, $9.75; Audio Cassettes, $50).

Krzyzanowski, Jerzy P. (1984). *Advanced Polish 1*. Pp. v, 357. $20, paper (Instructor Manual, $7.50; Audio Cassettes, $70). *Advanced Polish 2*. Pp. vii, 362. $20, paper (Instructor Manual, $7; Audio Cassettes, 60).

Reading Texts:
Krzyzanowski, Jerzy P., Bethin, Christina Y. & Wierzewski, Wojciech A. (1985). *Reading Polish 1*. Pp. 151. $25, paper (Instructor Manual, $9; Audio Cassettes, $50).

Krzyzanowski, Jerzy R. & Roney, Deborah W. (1986). *Reading Polish 2*. Pp. iii, 354. $20, paper (Instructor Manual, $7). (1987). *Reading Polish 3*. Pp. 455. $25, paper (Instructor Manual, $7).

Reviewed by Lidia Woytak

Polish Individualized Instruction materials consist of a basic set of textbooks labeled *Elementary Polish*, *Intermediate Polish*, and *Advanced Polish*. Further, there is a set designed for advanced courses titled, *Reading Polish 1*, *Reading Polish 2*, and *Reading Polish 3*. An Instructor Manual has been prepared for all the textbooks listed above. Additionally, *Elementary Polish*, *Intermediate Polish*, *Advanced Polish*, and *Reading Polish 1* are accompanied by audio cassettes.

Elementary Polish, *Intermediate Polish*, and *Advanced Polish* accompany a textbook for beginning Polish titled, *First Year Polish* by Oscar Swan (second edition, Slavica Publishers, 1983). Throughout the *Polish Individualized Instruction* materials, learners are referred to specific parts of Swan's book, such as pronunciation activities or dialogs.

Thus, especially in the initial volumes of the *Polish Individualized Instruction* materials, Swan's book seems to be the driving force.

The structure of a typical unit addresses all major areas of foreign language development. Each unit is built around the following major blocks: student-instructor checklist, objectives, student activity schedule, vocabulary list, vocabulary exercise (such as crossword puzzles, or chainword), lexical or structural notes and exercises, additional exercises integrating learner's skill development, cultural notes, self-test, and answer key.

Almost all volumes, namely *Elementary Polish 1* and *2*, *Intermediate Polish 1* and *2*, *Advanced Polish 1* and *2*, and *Reading Polish 1* and *2* contain objectives. The objectives, however, are not designed from a functional point of view. Rather than aiming at functional language use, they are clustered into three areas of vocabulary, grammar concepts, and basic language skills. In all three areas, the emphasis is on the structural aspect of language development. As a result, the learner encounters such objectives as: "conjugate verbs," "form sentences with and without personal pronouns" (*Elementary Polish* 2, Unit 6, p. 7). The authors are to be commended for presenting objectives, but they still need to spend some time refining them.

On the whole, the following section, "Student Activity Schedule" is well presented. In many instances, it replaces the instructor by guiding the learner from the start to the completion of each unit. This section is very specific and informative. In places, however, the "Student Activity Schedule" becomes too bulky to follow easily. This section could be streamlined by moving general statements to the Foreword and specific statements to the sections they address. Two examples of a general statement and a specific statement taken from *Advanced Polish 1*, Unit 21, follow respectively:

> Each unit contains a note on some aspect of Polish culture.
> (p. 12)
>
> Bydgoszcz, used in the upcoming exercise is feminine.
> (p.11)

On the whole, the grammar notes are appropriately written. These notes seem to assist the language learner successfully in foreign language processing rather than in presenting "grammar for grammar's sake," as frequently happens in many textbooks. Moreover, the style of the grammar notes is informal and easy to follow. The notes frequently contain cultural information about the specific use of presented forms.

The use of authentic materials in the *Elementary Polish*, *Intermediate Polish*, and *Advance Polish* is abundant, varied and appropriate. One can find excellent selections of poetry and prose in these textbooks. These well selected literature pieces, such as a short story by Edward Stachura, motivate the learner not only to practice reading, but also to read for pleasure. Additionally, these textbooks contain numerous photographs of Polish cities, historical monuments, movie and theater posters, nature, and people; they are quite interesting and make the text attractive.

The units in the Reading *Polish 1*, *Reading Polish 2*, and *Reading Polish 3* volumes consist of introduction, cultural notes and/or grammatical explanations, excerpts from authentic materials, and several follow-up exercises. The selection of reading materials is appropriate, and texts are interesting, with almost all of them authentic. These texts provide current information about social, economic, and cultural aspects of life in Poland. Unfortunately, many texts in *Reading Polish 1* and *2* are not acknowledged properly: the name of the publication, the copyright year, the name of the publisher, volume, number, and page number are frequently omitted. A proper citation and acknowledgement would not only give a proper credit to whom it is due, but also would provide relevant information to the learner for future reference. It is noteworthy, however, that each consecutive volume of *Reading Polish* demonstrates an improvement over the previous one. *Reading Polish 3* contains a useful introduction to basic reading strategies such as skimming or scanning. Moreover, the photographs and the illustrations are properly acknowledged in this volume.

The program on tapes is well designed. Conversations are natural and well recorded, and follow-up activities are appropriately chosen. Moreover, the program frequently is enhanced by well selected pieces of Polish music. The music provides not only cultural background, but also places the listener in a relaxed mood. Relaxation, according to the theory of Suggestopedia, enhances the learner's acquisition of a new language. On the other hand, some tapes may require minor revisions. Some structural exercises conducted on tape are too long; the authors could shorten them to 10 items each and replace them with new types of structural activities.

It is obvious that materials designed for individualized instruction should provide as much guidance as possible. Although the *Polish Individualized Instruction* materials guide learners adequately throughout the volumes, certain editorial improvements could still be made. First of all, the content page of each volume could provide specific information pertaining to the structure of each unit. Next, vocabulary and term indexes placed at the end of each volume would be greatly appreciated by learners of Polish. Finally, the learner would find useful a general overview preceding the entire *Polish Individualized Instruction* program.

The *Polish Individualizes Instruction* materials are based on unit-based learning, in which material is organized into units learners must master in order to progress to the next level. This concept, originally developed by Morrison, is similar to the concept of Mastery Learning, which is regaining new recognition among educators in the United States. In accordance with the Mastery Learning theory, each unit is preceded by a contract between a learner and an instructor. Although, ideally, 90% mastery is recommended for such a program, the authors of the *Polish Individualized Instruction* call for 80% mastery of material in each unit. It seems, however, that an optimal percentage of required mastery of *Polish Individualized Instruction* materials will be ultimately determined by practice.

The method employed by the authors of *Polish Individualized Instruction* is very efficient. Using textbooks, tapes, paper, and pencil, learners are expected to do most of the work on their own. In each unit the learners are encouraged to consult with the instructor in doing communicative exercises, to ask for clarifications, to discuss the material, and to have progress checked and approved. Although relieved from conducting various mechanical and semi-communicative exercises, the instructor monitors and controls progress throughout the whole learning process. In other words, instructors are contacted only for higher level teaching tasks and, thus, they are extremely efficient in this program.

Apart from an optimal use of instructor skills, the *Polish Individualized Instruction* program has other virtues. In contrast to a typical foreign language classroom instruction, in which the learner is immersed in interlanguage peer speech, the learner enrolled in this program is exposed exclusively to either live or electronic discourse of Polish educated native speakers.

Although there are various Polish textbooks, grammars, and tapes of differing quality, none of them provides such extensive individualized instruction. In summary, the authors need to be congratulated on the successful completion of this ambitious project. Finally, in times when many institutions of higher learning shy away from teaching Polish language courses, the Ohio State University deserves credit for providing such a sound Polish language program.

Foreign Language Foundation Moves from Concept to Reality

James Broz

A new organization has been created here to benefit all those who deal with foreign languages. The *International Language and Culture Foundation*, a nonprofit, professional organization to benefit foreign language teachers, students, and scholars was chartered June 7, 1988 in Monterey, California.

The *Foundation* will recognize excellence in foreign language teaching and extend educational opportunities by allocating funds and property to support and foster interest in the study of foreign languages and cultures. In this way the *Foundation* intends to promote excellence in all aspects of teaching foreign languages and culture, and in educational development and research.

The *Foundation* will extend membership to all who recognize the importance and relevance of foreign language education and the study of foreign cultures to our national well-being. Members can be active or retired military and civilian linguists. Membership will also include DLI students, faculty, and staff, as well as public school, university and college faculty, and students identifying with the goals of the *Foundation*.

The *Foundation* is independent of the Department of Defense and the Defense Language Institute. As envisioned by Colonel Monte R. Bullard (USA, Ret.), former DLI commandant, its purpose is to benefit both the defense language community and the public foreign language education community. Col. Ronald I. Cowger, Acting DLI Commandant, and Dr. Ray T. Clifford, Provost, have extended continued interest and support for the *Foundation*.

The Board of Directors invites the foreign language and culture community to support the work of the Foundation by becoming members. Details on membership are available by writing to The International Language and Culture Foundation. Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. The Foundation encourages readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction* to inform their colleagues and students about the Foundation. You may reach the Foundation by calling (408) 647-5639.

Author

James Broz, Faculty Development Specialist, Faculty and Staff Development, DLIFLC. Interests: sociolinguistics, cross-cultural communication, learning theory.

Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: **References**. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrate format for bibliographic entries.

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(1), 93-95.

Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited and the date of the work, e.g. (Jones, 1982). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Footnotes should be used for substantive information only, and each footnote should be typed directly below the line to which it refers. They should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript, and each one should be set off from the text with a horizontal line above and a horizontal line below.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids, or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1 1/4 inch on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the new word processors (Xerox Star) which are now available in all Schools and Directorates. When the Xerox Star is used authors should submit both a floppy disc and a hard copy (paper) of the manuscript.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed., 1983) available from the American Psychological Association, 1200 17 Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036.

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their name on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3" x 5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to the Editors of *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-VPF, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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Competing Paradigms in Adult Language Acquisition*

Janet K. Swaffar
University of Texas

Research studies of the eighties, whether in second language acquisition or English as a Second Language, generally commence by telling the reader where they stand with regard to Krashen's statements about acquisition and learning, the affective filter, a particular model of cognition, or a view of differences between language learning in children and adults.[1] His collaborative efforts and reanalyses of research in both first and second language learning have guided a general reassessment about how to become proficient in a foreign language.[2] Twenty years ago proficiency was often measured in terms of a predetermined linguistic product. Instructional focus was on vocabulary and grammar used according to a norm. Increasingly today, command of language is viewed in the profession as learner-centered, the result of integrated apprehension and production processes that result from extra-linguistic knowledge.

A radical shift in perspective has resulted, a shift that has ushered in new data, methods, and goals of L2 teaching in the United States within a relatively short period of time. This shift in our thinking has changed the role of research and consequently its implications for foreign language instruction for adults.

To speak of paradigm shifts may sound exaggerated, but it is hardly an overstatement to say that we in second language teaching have experienced a shift of great magnitude, a radical rethinking of our subject matter, tasks, and our objectives vis-à-vis the adult language learner. Yet while the rethinking is radical, its ramifications are unclear. Thomas Kuhn points out that in times of major readjustments in dominant thought, traditional patterns continue to operate concomitantly with the new ones. To distinguish between competing and often amalgamated versions of two concepts, Michel Foucault looks at patterns of inclusion and exclusion: What constitutes allowable

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*(*The Modern Language Journal*, 73 (3), pp. 301-314. Copyright 1989. Reprinted by the permission of the publisher.

thought as opposed to prohibited ideas; what is considered true and untrue, what is sacred and what is profane. From that vantage point a striking contrast emerges between the dominant thinking of twenty years ago and our thinking today.

A theory that redefines language learning can be elucidated either from the standpoint of language or from the standpoint of the learner. Any distinction between the two is arbitrary. For practical purposes the lines can be drawn between a definition of language as the product of study and definitions in which learner-processing is the motor driving the language product. In the sense of De Saussure, thirty years ago the language standard was *langue*, the language norm of a speech community, its grammatically perfect sentences, whereas today the standard is *parole*, appropriate expression within a specific speech community, including the pragmatics of contextually defined situations. The historical basis was represented by people who learned languages in the United States, attended Latin grammar schools, and became educated scholars. The language that educated people were supposed to know was the language of classical literature or, in modern languages, the canon of that country's literature. The French, German, or Spanish learned from their grandparents was inadequate by those scholarly standards. Language for communicative needs lacked academic prestige. Communicative use was further discouraged, because any language but English was actively forbidden in public schools.

Concomitant with these learning goals was a commensurate theory of learning: the behaviorist model. To the behaviorist, the learner was as a *tabula rasa* whose learning resulted from conditioned responses to outside stimuli. Their research focus was on observable data. In the days before computer technology, observable data were what the student produced in words or writing. Neither models of artificial intelligence nor multivariate statistical measures existed. Because thinking could not be observed, learner comprehension became known as a passive activity. Since learner processes were not evident, there was no way to assess their existence. The learner was a blank slate to be written on by appropriate instruction.

The definition of language in the old paradigm ignored learner cognition and affect. If the language in the head of the learner was inaccessible to observation, then speaker intent was as well. What remained was surface language and accuracy defined by a language norm. The language to be learned in the paradigm of the fifties and sixties had a single reality governed by rules for *langue* or standard speech in the abstract, where learners filled in slots or engaged in pattern drills. The dominant linguistic theory was structuralism.

There is no intent here to denigrate the work or research of structural linguists. Moulton's *Sounds of English and German*, for example, remains the acme for teaching distinctions in pronunciation.

The point is to illustrate what happens when a paradigm shifts and conversely, what is virtually impossible before that happens. The case of Bartlett, whose book *Remembering* was published in the 1930s and subsequently forgotten until the 1970s, illustrates what happens to unallowable thought. In Bartlett's volume, the unallowable thought was rationalism, the theory that each human being is born with innate ideas that interact with external stimuli the converse of the then dominant empirical notion of the human being as a *tabula rasa*. Bartlett's *Remembering* proposed that humans learn by integrating prior knowledge with new information. The subdiscipline he founded, schema theory, was about learning as problem-solving. Fifty years later, with the work in computer models for artificial intelligence and extensive neurological research (e.g., Anderson), the rationalist model of cognition has become viable.

As a further case in point, until the eighties the Sapirian and Whorfian hypotheses were considered interesting ideas, but not part of the dominant discourse in linguistics. Only after anthropological linguistics reached the public forum could the discipline be expanded to include the Sapirian and Whorfian hypotheses. Today, investigation into color perception is acceptable linguistic research.[3] Similarly, discourse and schema research on the relationship between reader perception and cultural background suggests how differences in ethnographic backgrounds affect perception of verbal implications.

In short, the new cognition paradigm has redefined our concept of language to include language created by the speaker and language as normed by the speech community. Since Chomsky with transformational grammar in the fifties, the sociolinguistics of fifties, the sociolinguistics of Hymes and Gumperz in the sixties, the related discourse analysis of Van Dijk and Kintsch or De Beaugrande, the semiotics of Eco and Greimas, or the case grammars of Fillmore and Longacre, language researchers have a definition of language that includes speaker cognition. Language, if located in the speaker's head as well as the outside world, consists not of one, but of multiple levels of measurable speaker experience: experience manifested in deep structures as well as surface structures, in macro- as well as micropropositions, in the *parole* of an actual speech community as well as *langue* in the abstract. Rather then representing a single level of surface language, all these theories represent language as the result of multiple experiential processes and innate factors.

The new relationship between cognition and language has led to completely new ways of researching language learning. Rather than focusing on language as such, research examines the language product as a result of cognitive process. User manuals for ERIC and *Language Abstracts* reflect the altered definition of our field. Descriptors such as "Adult Learning," "Age Differences in Language," "Neurolinguistics," "Language and Culture," "Sociolinguistics," identifiers such as "linguistic intuitions," "learner variable effects," and "metalinguistic awareness" all locate the new model of research: one that defines language as the product of a cognitive process. If their research design is compared (see Figure 1), the two paradigms emerge as a set of contrasting emphases.

Although relatively few in number, the categories on the left reflect a substantial body of research. One thinks here of the hallmark studies of the era: Scherer and Wertheimer, or Smith's Pennsylvania Report compared student learning under different methodological constraints. Work in contrastive analysis looked (with invaluable thoroughness) exclusively at differences in formal realizations of language (e.g., Moulton, Kufner). The research of the fifties and sixties by Pimsleur, Lado, and Robert Politzer established limits on learner recall of output: vocabulary or dialogues. But of course the language product paradigm precluded research designs that belong in the right hand categories.[4]

Figure 1

Language Norm + Task	Language Setting + Learner
Methodological comparisons	Analysis of learner errors
Contrastive analyses of languages	Error perception by others
Efficacy of memory tasks	Interlanguage
	Affective studies (attitude/ motivation)
	Ethnographic research
	Metalinguistic research
	Schema research
	Formal/informal learning
	Language loss
	Child/adult learning
	L1/L2 language acquisition

In psycholinguistics prior to the sixties, the question of differences between child and adult learning were hardly addressed. The behaviorist viewed the language learning of adults as very much like the language learning of children. After all, since language learning was assessed as the normed product of conditioned response, then there was little reason to assume that the adult's learning differs from that of the child. Ironically, the contrastive analyses of the fifties and sixties highlight the extent to which pronunciation and command of formal accuracy in adults compares unfavorably to those same abilities in children. Consequently, adult language learners are relegated to a second place status compared to children. Language instruction in high school and college is remedial work. The adult confronts learning obstacles that would not have existed, had the language been taught in grade school. From the empiricist perspective, the adult student, no longer a blank page to be written on, can never overcome the handicap of permanently established behaviors.

The paradigm shift to learner cognition changes the status of the adult student of language. In the seventies, researchers began to apply Piaget's theory of *Genetic Epistemology*, the notion that human ability in problem-solving is related to a sequence of stages that characterize cognitive maturation. Colleagues in Canada have been particularly informative in this respect. Studies of their immersion programs reveal that, although adults often fail to acquire phonological capabilities and the mastery of formal features of which children under fourteen are capable, they acquire conceptual and discursive capabilities in the second language at a faster rate than children (Genesee). Swain's work suggests that adults learn discursive and conceptual aspects of language more successfully than children do. Whereas early studies looked only at sentence level correctness, expansion of the focus from sentential to suprasentential discourse necessarily includes a grasp of complex ideas and use of discourse features connecting those ideas in longer texts. As a result, today we think that cognitive maturity may be an advantage because it facilitates the ease with which adults can acquire relatively complex ideas and the language of those ideas. Disadvantages in learning formal features are offset by advantages in conceptualization.

Once the learner becomes the focal point of research, the effect of a host of learner variables reflected in the two lists--different language backgrounds, different maturational levels, or different motivations--recommend themselves as design features. Interlanguage research illustrates the shift away from contrastive analysis of learner performance measured against a correctness norm, to analysis of performance as a series of learning stages (Gass & Selinker). Similarly, concern arises about the duration of language learning and the stages in language loss (Lambert & Freed). Part of, as well as independent of the foregoing, studies of error perception focus on the degree to which different problems in surface grammaticality interfere with message comprehension rather than weighting all errors as equal. With the focus on learner apprehension of language rather than language *per se*, research emphasis shifts from what is learned to how: the strategies students use to confront authentic materials and communicative situations. Aside from cognitive benefits to students, Barnett (1988) suggests that strategy use enhances student confidence about forthcoming advanced work.

Just as the theory and research of twenty years ago failed to acknowledge the cognitive benefits of maturity, they had also been completely incurious about whether or not affective differences existed between children and adults learning an L2. Since children were the L2 learning model and children were uninhibited, it followed that the research of the period simply neglected the role of inhibitors in adults. The whole notion of leeway in error production was not part of the behaviorist paradigm because a model based on normal output failed to acknowledge that errors are unavoidable. For the empiricist, errors were external and irremediable. Today we are willing to accept error production since we believe that learner capacity for self-correction is a sufficient countermeasure to the otherwise damaging influence of faulty language production

The impact of research has been to create a new curriculum for the adult learner. Rather than concentrating on the memory tasks assumed for the child, the focus has shifted to problem-solving commensurate with mature cognition. Rather than emphasizing a normed language, the focus is on context and communicative intent. In elementary language classes the practical implications can be summed up as follows:

Figure II
Lower Division Curricular Shift: Materials/Techniques

Preexisting Paradigm	New Paradigm
Culturally neutral dialogues, edited texts, separate skill practice	Personalized language Authentic texts as basis for oral, written work as well as reading
Sentence drill (fill in blanks) Grammar rules linked to formal accuracy in a sentence	Integrative use: grammar rules linked to meaning in paragraphs and discourse as well as sentence
Grammar rules taught in class at least 30% of class hour Cued by translation or grammatical	Grammar rules to be learned by students outside of class; 95% of class time devoted to contextual practice

terminology	Cued by situational variables
Vocabulary lists to be memorized for active use - largely cued by translation	Distinction between actively used and comprehended words - vocabulary understood and cued in L2 context

These distinctions must be viewed warily. Practitioners know that most "new" programs are actually implemented on a sliding scale between preexisting and new convictions and that one easily pays lip service to new terminology. The crux of the matter is how those new terms are defined in practice. References to "traditional methods" abound in our literature. Yet we recognize that these methods continue to exist on a mutable scale in syllabi, text selection, lesson plans, and testing. Curricular decisions frequently reveal which paradigm is allowable beneath the rhetoric. Such factors as the use of authentic texts that reflect the interests of adult students, the notion that adult learners should generate original utterances in simulations of their real world, or that tests should differentiate between receptive knowledge and command of grammar and vocabulary all imply a learner-centered definition of language instruction.

Another feature of the new paradigm is that it presents no disjuncture with upper-division work. Whereas previously a small percentage of language students continued course work as majors in a second language's literature or linguistics, today departments are developing courses and programs for the specialists in other fields. This shift is one result of research about the effect of cognitive background on comprehension and use of language in a given speech situation. Strong indications that, once basic language abilities were in place, adults performed better with materials geared to their cognitive levels and interests, have been translated into new upper-division programs for non-majors or double majors. Again, these shifts emerge in a matrix of comparison between most departmental programs twenty years ago and today.

In the mid-sixties, close to ninety percent of all American colleges had a language requirement for graduation. By the early eighties that figure was reduced by over forty percent. Since then the numbers are again on the upswing.[5] Increasingly, upper-division programs in area studies, comparative studies, and international studies assume an audience of students with second language ability. Pilot projects such as the one in international business and liberal arts at the City University of NewYork, College of Staten Island (in conjunction with the local Italian/American community) or the five-year program in international engineering at the University of Rhode Island are symptomatic of changes in the role of language departments.[6] Indeed, popular interest in second language learning is being tapped within the community as well. Adult Americans outside the university have also responded to subject area or practical language use as seen in flourishing elder hostel sessions, weekend immersion programs, language cruises, and summer programs abroad.[7]

Figure III
Upper Division Shift: Curricular Additions

Preexisting Paradigm	New Paradigm
Canon of literature as genres, periods	Literature as part of cultural values: popular culture, multi-media options, intertextuality rather than formal genre, thematic rather than period emphases
Language for sentence-level accuracy (major = scholar)	Pragmatic use of language in: -double majors -culture tracks -language in careers -study abroad

The paradigm shift is by no means restricted to the undergraduate program. In graduate programs, changes reflect new dimensions of the relationship between cognition and language. The bases for adult perception--our cultural schemata and complex intentions--are now the subject matter of new language curricula. In the chart below, cultural schemata appear in the guise of ethnographic, historical, and gender features within the literary canon (called here the shift from national to thematic literatures). Unlike the structuralist program whose divisions into phonology, morphology, and syntax reflected a model of surface language, today's linguistic program reflects a parallel processing model for adult speech. As in the elementary program these courses deal with the language created by the speaker and language as a norm within the speech community.

On the far end of Figure IV, the subdisciplines in graduate work are starred. The stars refer to interdisciplinary research. The motor driving the new undergraduate vehicle for adult language acquisition--interdisciplinary studies--is integrated research among those fields emerging in current graduate programs: rhetorical organization in discourse; psycholinguists' concern with realization of speaker intent; reader-based conceptualization in schema theory and semiotics. Socio linguists now assess the cultural-psychological factors that affect both learner perception and language use. These research inter-disciplines support a radically new role for second languages in the American curriculum: research has modified our thinking about the role of the learner by extending the limits of what the British Council calls the threshold factor--the amount of language ability necessary for adults to use that language to think, to construct meaning, and to express it. Course work now acknowledges adult conceptual ability and background by trapping macro-understanding, command of first language discourse, and prior knowledge in a particular subject. As a consequence, language research has expanded the dimensions of the language classroom and turned second language study into an intellectual discipline for real world use rather than a remedial discipline of dubious practical value, whose data had to be learned by rote.

Figure IV
Graduate Program Shift: Radical Changes

Preexisting Paradigm	New Paradigm
Canon as UG majors + depth	Thematic rather than national, i.e., cultural geography, dialect study, colonial literatures, women's studies
Text-immanent *interpretation*	Literary theory = *text-external* as well as textual phenomena - reader response* - psycholinguistics* - translation as reception
Diachronic linguistics: *separate realms*	Diachronic synchronic: *formerly isolated factors integrated*

-phonology/morphology/ syntax	speech act, discourse theory* - suprasentential grammars*
-stylistics (metrics, register)	- text-linguistics*
-etymologies, frequencies	sociolinguistics*

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*Various interdisciplinary researches

The foregoing presents the plus side--the new hopes created by the learner-centered paradigm. On the minus side are the hazards of the new enterprise for teachers of elementary language courses. The paradigm shift has complicated definitions of instructional tasks. Language is no longer a single, relatively mechanical collection of rule and vocabulary for assembly of grammatical sentences with slots for nouns, verbs and adjectives. Instead, language study today implies multiple subtleties and proliferating nomenclatures. Depending on whom teachers talk to, "language competency" may equate with command of the discursive rules of a given social setting, realization of intentions, or understanding the contrasting noun phrase structure underlying the surface congruity of "John is eager to please" and "John is easy to please," to mention just a few of the options. In the old paradigm teachers asked their students to reproduce language according to a fixed standard of correctness. Today we are encouraged to reward a flexible standard of intelligibility. The distinction can be expressed as follows:

Figure V
Standards

Assessment Criteria	Fixed Standard	Flexible Standard
Linguistic accuracy:	Surface grammaticality	Degree of listener effort at understanding syntax, lexemes
Linguistic function:	Mechanical skill with L2	Appropriatness in terms of speaker task, intent & context of the speech act; clarity of messages to others

Linguistic content:	Culturally neutral situations	Culturally authentic situations

The term "flexible standard" refers to still largely unspecified parameters of language as a communicative act. Despite lip service paid to the new paradigm, our reality is still far from the learner-centered definitions of language instruction. Papers at the recent Symposium on Research Perspectives on Adult Second Language Learning and Acquisition (hereafter ALLA) point to a need for readjustment in classroom practice. The strategy analyses of Oxford and Nyikos reveal that adults who begin to learn a second language engage in behaviors "likely to be useful in a traditional, structure-oriented, discrete-point foreign language instructional environment" (p. 9). Consequently these students are less likely to practice functional use of language. In view of the large sample population, Oxford and Nyikos' conclusion that "expectations imposed by standard academic approaches to teaching and testing limit the motivation of most language learners to try new, creative, communicatively-oriented strategies" (p.19) is damning. It suggests that current teaching and assessment practices defeat communicative objectives.

In studies from the ALLA symposium that confirm and specify the particulars of defeating practices. Horwitz argues that anxiety arising out of performance expectations in a normed curriculum has a negative effect on linguistic performance. The ethnographic study of an elementary French class at Michigan Technological University explored those norms. The conclusions to be drawn from the fact that beginning French students preferred written rather than spoken activities, because writing gives them time to think, have their correlative in Laeufer's analysis. She demonstrates that the data on the critical period hypothesis, the old LAD notion, strongly suggest the need for change in learner perception before a change in language production can take place. The value of listening and writing discrimination activities is well established in research (Belasco, Winitz). Apparently such activities remain unincorporated into adult language curricula and testing practice. The result is that curricula and tests focus on activities students find onerous and unproductive.

The dismaying feature of this research is that, despite the success of well documented handbooks such as Omaggio's *Language Teaching in Context*, Kramsch's *Discourse Analysis and Second Language Teaching*, and Grellet's *Developing Reading Skills*, the beginning language curriculum has resisted teaching and testing the parameter settings of the new paradigm. Rule-centered instruction still predominates at this level. Teachers cling to old practices in the absence of direct positive evidence about new ones. We need more studies to help identify which rules and which classroom practices promote accurate output and which rules and practices inhibit it. Byrnes (1988) suggests a way to assess whether oral corrections are meaning-based. Confirmation of that model would enable us to establish what focus on content, even among beginning language students, facilitates accuracy. Similarly, Musumeci's classroom data support the evidence of Phillips that tense markers are less significant than meaning factors such as adverbs and context--in this case the context of gestures.

Closely linked to the practical problem of knowing what to teach is the institutional problem of accountability. Oxford, Horwitz, Laeufer, Loughrin-Sacco, Bommarito, and Sweet all indicate that unproductive strategies result from instructional practices anchored in the old paradigm of normed language. Nonetheless, the adherence to the old standard has practical appeal. A known quantity, however unsatisfactory, has its strong attraction. Discrete rules of grammar can be taught and tested with straightforward quantification. Motivation and complex multivariate interactions lack these virtues.

Research findings are well and good. But, to change the world of language teaching practice, teachers need verifiable standards by which to measure student performance. I purposely avoid the word "valid" in favor of "verifiable." Most practitioners are wary of research validity. Language teachers work under a considerable range of often idiosyncratic conditions with students from widely varying backgrounds. We don't teach random samples. In fact, all language teachers have to do to be credible to each other and to colleagues in other disciplines is to demonstrate that some kind of learning occurs as a result of their efforts and those of their students. Caught between competing definitions of the learner's task, the profession lacks a fundamental degree of unanimity in teaching and testing styles (Lightbown).

One of the great problems with the old paradigm was that adherence to the normative standard was costing language study its student audience. Learners of the sixties and seventies voted with their feet. Placement tests of discrete rules revealed what was euphemistically referred to as a problem in articulation, otherwise identifiable in that unfortunately familiar boast "four years of high school and didn't learn a thing."

By the late 1970s, increasing numbers of teachers realized that existing tests of normed language lacked appropriateness and were defeating the cause of language learning in the United States. The charge of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies in 1979 was unambiguous: The nation needed a standard that registered language ability in terms of the learner's background and adult cognition. In the American academy this charge was addressed by what is now referred to as the ACTFL proficiency movement. Within less than a decade, the proficiency movement has accomplished what research in adult language acquisition alone could not have done. It defines language acquisition according to the new research paradigm, as stages in learner linguistic development paralleled by learner ability to express cognitive capacity. Precisely because it is a testing rather than a research program, the proficiency movement has opened up instructional potential and a publishing marketplace for the new paradigm. Although the adherence has sometimes been more cosmetic than substantive, communicatively based teaching and the natural approach are now respectable terms among the rank and file, ideas whose time has come.

Currently one of the most interesting but also potentially most destructive debates in adult language acquisition revolves around the issue of the "experiential" criteria on which proficiency tests are based. From the practitioner's standpoint not the debate but the potential divisiveness fueled by it is particularly troubling. The institutional realities of second language teaching in the United States render it virtually impossible for us to do what our colleagues in ESL can accomplish through research alone: unlike ESL colleagues we have a restricted research tradition. To be sure part of the new paradigm involves acknowledgement of applied linguists within academic language programs. Nonetheless, language instruction remains the stepchild within the scholarly academy. Departmental budget lines and our *raison d'être* in the university community still rest with scholarship in literature, philology and intellectual history.

Whereas ESL programs survive on the basis of effective integration of their student audience into specific walks of life or disciplines within the mainstream academy of the United States, foreign language departments remain insulated from such direct accountability. The instructional impact of the research program of our colleagues in ESL reflects a distinctive institutional discourse. Our foreign language departments with flourishing study abroad and interdisciplinary programs are less insulated today than twenty years ago, but insulated nonetheless. They will probably always be so to some extent since their status is that of an academic discipline. As a consequence, applied research had less direct bearing on beginning language instruction in foreign languages than in ESL. Without external institutional pressures, language departments are unlikely to respond to ideas about changing their curricula.

The objective of this digression is to point out something that I feel is so obvious that it is in danger of being overlooked. This fact is that research and the *Guidelines* are natural allies. Whatever the shortcomings of the ACTFL *Proficiency Guidelines*, they represent the research community's most fruitful entry into influencing change in instructional practices in adult language acquisition in the American academy. As truly interim guidelines they can help demonstrate differences between a curriculum based on normed language and functional language use. At the same time, the *Guidelines* present the troubling specter of potentially entrenched policies that dictate curricular practice. It is here that the second language research community has the obligation to point out not only shortcomings of the existing *Guidelines*, but to engage in constructive debate about how to alter them. And if that exchange is to be fruitful, the ACTFL community must be full participants

The June 1988 issue of *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* presents an admirable instance of just such a debate. While clearly critical of the *Guidelines*, Valdman's analysis nonetheless, together with the spectrum of research studies that follows, examines alternatives as well as concerns about ACTFL's testing practice and the validation of proficiency testing in theory and research.[8]

Interim guidelines, although premature from a research standpoint, despite disputes about their validity, represent our best hope for implementation of an adult language acquisition paradigm: the *Guidelines* account for the learner's functional abilities in a consistent way. However, the strength of consistency is vulnerable on two counts mentioned above: 1) the concern that the *Guidelines* are inaccurate because they are insufficiently sensitive in assessing multiple factors; 2) the fact that the *Guidelines* are necessarily too broad for daily applications in the classroom. With regard to point one, studies must do more than critique the *Guidelines*. They must also offer viable modifications to current practice. With regard to point two, the practioner's plight, research must clarify the accountability standards for classroom achievement testing. Teachers need guidelines about what to teach and test every day to encourage their students to become proficient in the long run. Answers to these two concerns must, in my view, be the research direction of the immediate future. In short, the profession needs a more practice-oriented program than has heretofore characterized second language research about adults (e.g., Spada).

As a language teacher, I would like to see the following refinements in the current style and design of research in adult language acquistion. First, in a field in which variables play an enormous role, we need further exploration of existing research findings. Funding opportunities may now exist to duplicate studies or to explore discrete variables in research design, to investigate those variables in different institutions, of different sizes, and under different ethnographic constraints. As part of such efforts, it would be useful if researchers worked more closely with teachers. Moreover, since second language research is based very largely on first language models, a closer working relationship with experts in artificial intelligence and cognitive psychology should be pursued. Thus fortified, second language researchers should further investigate comparative effects of formal versus informal instruction or the effect of differences in cultural conditioning on adult language learning.

Second, research needs to assess dominant learning models. In adult language acquisition, the primary problem now is that we are trying to construct a new, learner-centered model with the old sentential grammar, when we should be working with a text-based, supra/sentential grammar. We don't know whether all grammar lear-ing is unitary, driven by a central cognitive motor, by the same macrocomputer in the brain, or whether the learning components are modular. If modular, then the affective, metacognitive, and grammatical capabilities could be driven by cognitively-independent processors. Thus, the modular theory would account for relative ease in macroprocessing of concepts and discourse settings on the one hand, and the difficulties of adults in pronunciation and details of grammar on the other. A modular model presumes that in the critical stage, the native language parameter settings are established.[9] If these settings result in accurate applications of sentence-level rules, it follows that they must be modified in adults before surface rules in a second language can be acquired.

The current discussion about universal grammar models had enormous significance for adult language acquisition curricula, since it implies instructional approaches and learner strategies emphasizing a limited number of contrastive distinctions rather than learning the complete rule ordering of the second language.[10] Practical confirmation of that theory would help develop a supra/sentential grammar. If research can identify parameter settings as blind spots in adult perception that inhibit grammar accuracy in the second language, we might learn about those blocks in perception and figure out how to teach grammar through use, not usage.

Third, research needs to look for task hierarchies in the new paradigm. Rather than implying a fossilized acquisition ability, recent indications suggest that the adult language learner has modified acquisition ability. But what modifiers? At present we speculate about the fundamental premise of adult language acquisition: Adults can learn a language better when distinctions in meaning are emphasized as the basis for distinctions in form. As yet we have virtually no indications about how to capitalize on this premise. For example, let us assume that changes in verb tense signal vital distinctions in a foreign language text such as a reading on bridge construction (what gets done first?) It would be useful to have evidence that an engineer learns verb tenses more readily when studying a text about sequential problems in bridge building, than when memorizing lists of principal parts and plural forms. Moreover, if language learning occurs in conjunction with comprehension of meaning, how can such learning be encouraged in classroom practice?

Fourth, with research emphasis on proficiency testing, it should not be forgotten that the language classroom still needs effective models for testing material studied or taught in class. Despite enthusiasm for the new learner-centered paradigm, the teaching and testing of classroom achievement has been neglected. Teachers will naturally continue to teach discrete rules and vocabulary lists for their midterm and final exams unless presented with viable alternatives. Teachers need to know how to use the insights of affective and strategy research to design tests that reflect and encourage creative, communicatively oriented strategies on the part of students.

How can second language research go about addressing these needs? Henning suggests we start with research design. In a quantitative comparison of a decade of articles in *Language Learning* and the *TESOL Quarterly*, he notes that, despite a tripling of numbers of research studies in the past ten years, the increase in genuine hypothesis testing of discrete practices or multivariate statistics to assess the interaction of cognitive processes is minimal. If these two journals can be considered representative of the research problem Henning identifies, the conclusion seems to be that, despite the salutary increase in quantitative research in the past ten years, that effort necessarily fails to address issues of preferential classroom practice. Research too often looks at the learner without considering the learner variables.

The interactive learner model uses data about a complex set of variables, about multiple features of comprehensible input, adult conceptualization, rule learning, or functional use. To illuminate students' developmental patterns, data are often subjected to multivariate analysis such as the MANOVA.[11] Such statistics examine the proportion of mismatches between subjects. They compare behaviors rather than "correct" answers, thereby suggesting the relationship between different stimuli and different responses. Thus statistics that measure dissimilarities as well as similarities between students and their performance lend insight into learning processes. The critical teaching decisions involve not what to teach, but in what sequence. To decide how to present verbs, for example, we need information about the relationship of verb tenses to other factors such as the subject matter, student population, and goals of a particular institutional program.

In this respect, as Henning also suggests, future research needs to make greater use of inferential statistics. Inferential analyses help substantiate whether the sample examined does or does not represent a larger population of students. A learner-centered model for language use has to be researched with maximal sensitivity to differences in learner backgrounds and metacognitive abilities. In addition to isolated hypotheses about learning, second language teachers need descriptive data about its multiple dimensions.

Emergence of an interactive model of second language acquisition has led many researchers to engage in secondary analyses or reassessments of research designs in conjunction with the test instruments used. As a result, within the last four years several comparative studies have suggested that native language recall reveals different learning than that revealed when students undertake the same task in their second language (Carrell, Lee, Allen et al.). A recent first language study by Perrig and Kintsch suggests that distinctions in comprehension of macro and micro information may result from text structure alone. An account about buildings seen while entering a city yielded comprehension different from that of students who read an account of the same buildings in terms of their spatial relationships. In all these cases the quality of data yielded by the studies depended on the organization of data rather than the data themselves. Illustrations of how changes in research design change results suggest how it is that classroom tests often tell us what we want to know rather than what students are able to do. Comparing performance of L1 and L2 students, Shohamy found that testing procedures (multiple-choice, open-ended questions), text, and language all had a significant effect on students' scores in reading comprehension.

Statistical models and their applications can also alter findings. Recently two analyses of the same interlanguage study revealed that, depending on how student behavior is defined, adults either display no access to natural language rules or, conversely, that the rules they adopt are perfectly consistent with several parameters of Universal Grammar (Du Plesis et al.). Interpretation can also depend on the statistics themselves. John Carroll reexamined the findings of studies that used particular statistical analysers. Using a second set, he demonstrated that different statistical measures massage not only the data but also the results: His findings were diametrically opposed to those of the original study.[12] Finally, research often ignores the relationship between ostensible instructional goals and actual realization of those goals. We need more studies about the difference between results and the manner in which results are solicited by teachers or achieved by students.

This gap can be bridged when L2 research pinpoints how the performance of students is understood with respect to the two paradigms for language learning: the language norm on the one hand, the interactive standard on the other. Only if these categories are established can research on student performance distinguish between surface memory and critical thinking tasks. The implications of a study of normed language may differ from those of a study of authentic discourse. The data from research on correct usage within isolated sentences necessarily reflect ability in manipulation of normed language. Conversely, tests of the grammar in connected sentences drawn from authentic speech admit focus on development of discourse meaning. Hence the results are more likely to test inferential and problem solving abilities. Without such specification of standards, the basis for the learner outcome is obscured.

As a further illustration of the hazards of narrow assessment, consider Perrig and Kintsch's L1 students who were able to identify close to fifty percent of the textual propositions on one test of a reading passage, yet were unable to draw an accurate map of the town described in the passage. Only the comparative assessment revealed the "contrast between, on the one hand, the subjects' ability to recall a text reasonably well . . . , and their inability to do anything with this remembered information" (p. 509).

Unlike Perrig and Kintsch, L2 research descriptions often present their samples and controls without actually clarifying essential questions about the type of learning under investigation. Was the goal recall or conceptualization? Has the researcher defined the key distinctions for the practitioner? What is meaning, comprehension, production, the teacher role, the learner role, in short, the practical significance of findings within the framework of the particular study? I suggest that these distinctions, subsets of the two language acquisition paradigms, will be binary, and that their clarification in terms of the following checklist would be extremely helpful for those of us in the field:

Figure VI
A Checklist of Binary Options: Teacher & Learner Roles

Language data norms	+ / - culturally sanitized environment, role of learner's background schemata, metacognition
Standard of competency	+ / - formal accuracy or *langue*, surface correctness within a cultural or social setting
Functional use	+ / - restricted competency, *parole*, or situational appropriateness
Message	+ / - meaningfulness of information as discourse,

	macro or micro levels
Intent	+ / - learner, teacher motives in language work: vis-à-vis grammar rules, communication, tests

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The broader research implications of these distinctions involve definitions of validity in all kinds of verbal testing. Tests of normed language, *langue*, fail to assess the speakers' potential within a particular speech community, particularly in terms of speech or real user conventions. The most familiar illustrations of this problem involve I.Q. tests of various ethnic groups in our culture, and in the same vein, the questions arising out of proficiency testing of native Americans who speak a dialect of Spanish or who have not used their Spanish in educational settings. Is an inability to express abstract ideas or negotiate difficult interactions a linguistic, an affective, or an experiential deficiency?[13] Would practice in negotiating in English or Spanish transfer equally well into an improved proficiency in the other language? Are many presumed linguistic problems rooted in lack of conceptual rather than language practice - that is, do adults need cognitive experience as well as experience with language usage? When and how much of each promotes optimal learning? To what degree do motivational and affective circumstances interact with various learning circumstances? Such investigatory reassessment must become a major characteristic of language research. In that sense, future research in adult language acquisition must now specify the implementation of the paradigm shift in language teaching it has helped to bring about.

Notes

1. Originally a keynote address at the *Modern Language Journal* Ohio State University Symposium on Research Perspectives in Adult Second Language Learning and Acquisition, Columbus, 22 October 1988. I wish to express thanks to Maria Beck, Dale Koike, and Ingeborg McCoy for stimulating suggestions, many of which have contributed substantively to an earlier draft of this paper. Special thanks are due to Heidi Byrnes for her detailed comments and discussion about the final version.
2. Krashen works with ESL as well as L2 researchers. His numerous joint studies have appeared in a wide range of journals and anthologies. For sample references and an overview of the ways L2 research methodology affects results, the reader could consult Chapter Ten and

the Bibliography of the collaborative volume *Language Two* (with Burt & Dulay).

3. In one line of inquiry undertaken since the 1960s, linguists have investigated color perception. Studies such as that of Kay and Kempson suggest that differences in the judgments about the blue-green lexical category boundary made by speakers of English compared to the judgments of speakers of Tarahumara (a language which lacks the blue-green lexical distinction) result from instructions rather than linguistic determinism. In an experiment, when both groups were asked to pick out the "odd man out" of three hues, distinctions found in an initial experiment in which subjects were asked to identify the blue-green boundary completely disappeared. The authors speculate that differences in results are attributable to metaphorical rather than conceptual structure. Kay and Kempson conclude that "if differences in the distortion of English judgments can be made to disappear . . . we are not hopelessly at the mercy of our language" (p.75). Yet purely lexical experiments sidestep a broader, discursive view of linguistic relativity. Eco, for example, implies that cultural systems account for perceptual differences. In my view, Eco's position aligns with Sapir's assertions about the psychological impact of patterns of discourse (see Chapter Eleven in *Language*) and their relationship to the content of a given culture (Sapir 63: 219). Sapir elaborates on that relationship in his essay on international language. There he suggests that surface translations promote misunderstandings, because given concepts such as "free will" are located in widely varying discourse systems in different languages (see *Culture, Language, and Personality*, pp 48-49). I am indebted to my colleague Knud Lambrecht for calling the research of Kay and Kempson to my attention as well as the fact that the so-called "Whorf-Sapir Hypothesis" is construed by some linguists to be a purely lexical issue.

4. In the past decade Robert Pulitzer has made significant contributions to our knowledge of the relationship between learning strategies, motivation, and achievement of ESL students.

5. The MLA's 1987-88 survey of foreign language entrance and degree requirements showed that 381 (25.7%) of the responding baccalaureate institutions have a foreign language requirement for entrance and 862 (58.2%) have a requirement for the bachelor of arts degree. In the 1982-83 survey only 1.1% reported entrance requirements and 7% BA-degree requirements. The peak year reported was 1964-65 when 33.6% had entrance requirements and 88.9% a BA-degree requirement (see "Language Requirements Survey," *MLA Newsletter*).

6. See "Fund for the Improvemewnt of Postsecondary Education Resources: The Comprehensive Project Descriptions 1987-1988." Washington: US Department of Education, 1987. Descriptions of a wide

variety of program types can be found in Hill's collection of essays on innovations in study abroad programs.

7. See, for example, the community programs at the State University of New York, College at New Paltz, under the direction of Henry Urbanski.

8. The intent of this issue is, in fact, to "bridge the gap between SLA and language proficiency testing" by pointing out the impact of the ACTFL *Guidelines* on teaching policy on the one hand, and soliciting alternatives on the other (p. 122). Valdman states that although an instrument for assessing FL proficiency is highly desirable, "the FL teaching profession is incurring a high risk if it prematurely institutionalizes an assessment instrument inadequately validated and lacking theoretical support" (p. 123). For reasons argued in this article, I find that the degree of risk hinges on the definition of institutionalization. If it is possible to "institutionalize" a test that will be modified on the basis of clear research findings, then it is more desirable to have a premature instrument than none at all. For a positive assessment of proficiency concepts as a framework for research, see Byrnes (1987), Magnan (1988). For models of such research, see Magnan (1986, 1988).

9. Chomsky describes the distinction with the metaphor of a universal language system as a complex network with a series of switches (parameter settings). "Each permissible array of switch settings determines a particular language. Acquisition of a language is in part a process of fixing the values of the parameters" (17: 63). He notes that this discussion limits itself to "core language," thereby excluding vocabulary, idioms, and the like. When they explore the concept, semanticists will probably have a more inclusive view.

10. Oller has argued the case for student predisposition or expectancy for grammar learning as a function of a general language proficiency factor (the unitary hypothesis). For a summary presentation of various theoretical models and the current status of research in Universal Grammar, see Birdson. For a pragmatic investigation of the curricular implications of competing unitary and modular models, see Beck.

11. Although fairly commonplace today, we should not forget that multivariate analysis has really emerged as a research tool only within the past decade. Before computers, sophisticated analyses of interactions between multiple components in a study were not mathematically feasible. Such statistics usually require "a large and powerful computer equipped with special software packages" (Woods, Fletcher & Hughes, p. 250).

12. The data in the study he examined (Scholz et al.) supported a strict unitary hypothesis claim–that all language skills are related. However, when Carroll conducted a reanalysis of that data (twenty-four cloze, multiple-choice, repetition, interview, etc., test types) he illustrated, among other things, that different coefficients and factoring modified

the original study's findings. He concluded that similar analyses would modify findings in other published studies (p. 92). While his remarks are directed at general proficiency studies, they highlight a problem for those of us in the laity–the practitioners who want to know what classroom practices should result from the current breadth of interactive research.
13. For studies arguing the need for such distinctions to be made in research design, the reader is referred to articles by Swaffar, Arens & Morgan, Long, and Buckheister.

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Student Opinions and Preferences for Error Treatment at the Middle East School

Sadok Masliyah

In this exploratory paper an attempt is made to elicit student opinions about some of the variables that may affect the process of adult classroom teaching/learning. Questionnaires were administered during 1987-1989 to 121 students of Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, and Turkish at the Middle East School, Monterey, California.

This study, which is an initial probe into the problems of classroom error correction, undertakes important issues such as student attitudes and feelings toward their linguistic errors, the effects of teacher attitude on students, and teacher strategies in treating students' oral errors.[1] *It also tries to determine whether student level of proficiency or type of target language is associated with student opinions about strategies in treating errors. Furthermore, it examines and contrasts the findings with existing studies on the issues under discussion.*

The ultimate goal of this investigative survey is to establish systematic strategies for error treatment and to correlate between feedback and learning outcome. To achieve this goal, follow-up studies based on keen class observations and group interviews should be conducted.

Students' Background and Instruction

The majority of students who responded to the questionnaire are American-born male soldiers, 18-30 years of age, serving in various military units. During the 47 weeks of the basic course, three weeks of which are allocated for vacation, students receive five hours of classroom instruction and one hour of laboratory work daily. To graduate, students must attain level-two proficiency in listening comprehension and level-two in either speaking or reading, provided that no skill is lower than level one. Success-rate percentages vary by language difficulty. They tend to be lower in category IV languages (category IV languages includes languages very difficult for American students, such as Arabic, Chinese, or Japanese) than in category III, which includes less difficult languages like Hebrew, Persian, and Turkish. A screening aptitude test (DLAB) is conducted to determine potential candidates for linguistic training in the basic course. Proficieny pay, status, and personal drive are some of the incentives which encourage and motivate DLI students to achieve excellence. The maximum number of students per language class is 10.

Staffing

Most of the teachers in the Middle East School are native speakers of the target languages, except in the Hebrew where the majority are non-natives (77 percent). Although more than 95 percent of the DLI faculty possess a college degree, less than 1 percent have a degree in foreign language teaching or education (*DLI Master Plan*, 1988). Most of the teachers at DLI receive in-house training.

The eclectic approach may best describe DLI's method of teaching for proficiency. Language proficiency tests in the speaking, listening, and reading skills are conducted weekly, every term, and at the end of the course (DLPT). The DLPTs are based on authentic language materials and require students to demonstrate ability to use language for survival. They are prepared by the Testing Division, rather than by specific departments. The government proficiency scale of *1-5* is used as the basis of design and for selection of texts for testing.

Class Atmosphere

Generally, during the first weeks of instruction, students develop a spirit of mutual cooperation, trust and unity, share personal experiences and become like a small community. This is important not only for facilitating communicative activities (Brickbichler, 1977; Little and Sanders, 1985), but also for encouraging students to converse without being afraid of making linguistic errors. Also, seeing each other as comrades, not as competitors, minimizes the creation of a threatening atmosphere in the class communicative interactions. Furthermore, student-teacher relationships tend to be informal in Hebrew classes, while they are less informal in Arabic, Persian, and Turkish classes. At the time of administering this study the Arabic students were taught by a team of teachers, whereas the Hebrew, Persian, and Turkish students–by two teachers only.

Student Questionnaire

Student questionnaires were administered from 1987 to 1989 to 121 students at the Middle East School. About half of the students were in Phase 1 (weeks 1-22 of instruction), and the rest were in Phase 2 (weeks 23-47 of instruction). Twenty-nine Arabic students (two classes: 15

students were in week 7; 14 in week 31); 44 Hebrew students (six classes: six students were in week seven, nine in week 11, nine in week 16, six students in week 24, six in week 35, and eight in week 46); 28 Persian students (two classes: 11 students were in week 19, 17 in week 30); and 20 Turkish students (two classes: seven students were in week nine, three in week 22, and 10 in week 46), voluntarily answered the questionnaires. At the time of administering the questionnaires, all the classes had, at least, completed the seventh week of instruction. The students were encouraged to elaborate on their responses if necessary.

The questionnaire contained 17 questions: the first eight were general *yes/no* questions; questions 9-15 contained multiple choices, and questions 16 and 17 asked the students to rate their answers on a scale of 1-4. A different example in question 15 was given to the Arabic and Hebrew students than to the Persian and Turkish students, but both examples illustrated the same point. Some of the questions were rephrased or adapted from the survey conducted by Cathcart and Olsen (1976).

Method

Responses to each question were tallied according to class level of proficiency (Phase 1 or Phase 2) in each of the four Middle Eastern languages, and total answers to each question were computed. Student responses in each level and language were examined and compared to total responses to find out if a level of proficiency or a specific language influenced treatment of errors. The findings were examined and compared with the available research on the issues under discussion. The results of each question were dealt with separately, but questions seven and eight were treated together, so were questions nine and 10, and 16 and 17.

Three appendices are included: The first includes the questionnaire with overall results following each question; the second lists the results of each language according to a level of proficiency, and the third provides a comparison of results between the two levels of proficiency of all languages under discussion.

Discussion and Results

Q1. Have you studied a foreign language before?
R: Yes/No

Ninety-five students answered affirmatively. The majority were Hebrew and Persian students: 21 Arabic students, 36 Hebrew students, 24 Persian students, and 14 Turkish students.

Q2. Does it affect you negatively if the teacher reacts angrily to the same errors you make repeatedly?
R: Yes/No.

There is consensus among psychologists and educators that student emotions may seriously affect learning. Student attitude toward second-language study, the method of teaching and the culture of the second language are among the factors that can affect the outcome of learning a second language (Lambert, 1963; Savignon, 1972; Hammerly, 1982; Krashen, 1982). A condemning teacher attitude may create emotional blocks in the students toward the second language, shake their confidence and inhibit them from speaking. This is especially true with oral work because it is done in front of the whole class.

Several educators suggest that teachers should avoid providing indirect adverse criticism, ridiculing or humiliating students when they treat students' errors. Students should be corrected in an engaging manner without discouraging language production on the part of the students, and they should be assured consistent positive and supportive feedback in a non-inhibiting, non-threatening manner. Errors should be corrected kindly, politely, persistently and to the point, as students respond much better to this approach than to criticism (Flanders, 1970; Moskowitz, 1976; Brown, 1979; Hammerly, 1982, 1985; Walz, 1982; Omaggio, 1986). Furthermore, a positive affective tone in the teacher's voice promotes a natural acquisitional process of learning to function (Krashen, 1982).

Nonetheless, only 83 students (70 percent) provided affirmative responses. It appears that the students' level of proficiency and the languages they studied had no impact on this result. Almost an equal number of students in phases 1 and 2 said they were affected by the emotional reaction of the teacher: forty-one students in phase 1 versus 43 students in phase 2. Twenty students in phase 1 versus 18 students in phase 2 responded negatively.

This question received considerable attention from the students, as many of them made comments on the effects of teacher behavior. One of the students wrote that negative teacher attitude toward errors " . . . creates an uncomfortable environment and can cause a student not to take risks. We have to feel free to attempt words and phrases that are not necessarily comfortable yet. But the student won't try if he is afraid the teacher will lose patience or criticize him for his mistakes." Another student wrote: "I feel uneasy when corrected intolerantly. Having my weaknesses publicly disclosed is very disturbing." The negative effects of such behavior on the part of the teacher were also expressed by another student: "Once the error correction is shifted from personal to academic, the correction of the mistake will be better received and more permanent. Instead of saying 'you are wrong,' or 'you should know this,' the teacher should say 'that's not how we say it in the target language; this is what you are trying to say'." A student of Arabic commented: "It gives me an inferiority complex feeling and causes me to constantly worry about my ability to perform in the class. If your teacher can't tolerate your mistakes, who can?"

Q3. Do corrections of your oral errors in the class discourage you from speaking?
R: Yes/No

Several educators warn that correcting speaking errors may impede and inhibit learners, interrupt their attempts to create speech and make them focus on form rather than message (Chastain, 1971; Gorbet, 1974; Birckbichler, 1977; Terrell, 1987). Stein (1974), for example, believes that if student attention is constantly drawn to evaluation, he or she is likely to concentrate on the potential for errors too early in the learning process and consequently will be intimidated in expression. In addition, correction of oral errors in a classroom setup presents greater difficulty than correcting written errors. This is due to the differences between the variables of written and oral errors (Walz, 1982). While the latter is usually done privately, the former is conducted overtly, which may affect student communication. However, not all oral errors should be ignored, because if they go uncorrected often enough, they become resistent to correction or, in other words, fossilized.[2] Yet, the degree to which error correction aids learners' progress in learning TL is still unknown.

The results of this study showed, however, that correcting students' errors did not discourage 72 students (60 percent) of Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, and Turkish, 40 of them in lower levels of proficiency.

Q4. Do frequent consistent corrections (by the teacher) of your linguistic errors interfere with your speech?
R: Yes/No

A number of educators believe that overcorrection of oral errors destroys student confidence and motivation, cuts off his sentences, causes him to lose his train of thought, reduces his desire to say anything and prevents him from concentrating on the message (Burt and Kiparsky, 1971; Chastain, 1971; Holley and King, 1971; Walker, 1973; Valette, 1973; Cathcart and Olsen, 1976; Birckbichler,1977). Yet, if the corrections are done in a positive way, Virgil and Oller (1976) see no reason why fairly frequent linguistic error correction does any psychological harm to students in the classroom setting.[3] Correcting too many oral errors encourages students to produce simplistic sentences rather than complex: "It is not uncommon for students to adjust, or even abandon, what they want to say in an effort to say it correctly, or to the teacher's satisfaction. The end product may be correct in the grammatical sense, but it is inadequate from the point of view of communication" (Gobert,1974, p. 59). Correcting superficial errors too often may also waste time.

It is suggested that the teacher should be selective in correcting spoken and written errors, as such selectivity is necessary, at least, for maintaining the pace of the class and communicative activities without excessive interruptions–and without embarrassing students.

One would expect students' opinions in this study to conform to the above opinions and findings. Surprisingly, more than half of the students (68) indicated that correcting their errors frequently did not interfere with speech. Forty of them (34 percent) were in 9-22 weeks of instruction. More than half the 40 were students of Hebrew. A relaxed atmosphere and relatively informal student-teacher relationships in Hebrew classes might explain this finding.

Q5. Do you think that your linguistic answers will be of a better quality if you take your time?
R: Yes/No

"Wait time" is the amount of time the teacher allows the student after posing a question or before pursuing the answer with further questions, or before addressing the question to another student. Educators and teachers believe that the learner should be given a fair chance and sufficient wait time for self monitoring, formulating his response, and producing a better quality output (Rowe, 1974; Long et al., 1984; Chaudron, 1988; van Lier, 1988). Studying science lessons, Rowe reported that if the average wait time is prolonged to three to five seconds, the length of the student response will increase drastically, as will the number of completed sentences (cited in Long, 1977, p. 459).

The salutary effect of wait time on both quality and quantity of response was attested to overwhelmingly in this study. One hundred and six students of Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, and Turkish in all weeks of instruction responded affirmatively to this question. One student indicated that wait time gives him more "time to search for vocabulary and to construct the sentence in the proper order."

Q6. Do you learn more from the teacher's corrections of your errors than from those of other learners?
R: Yes/No

Several scholars maintain that students are capable of correcting some or most of their errors. A number of these scholars adopt a hierarchy of persons who correct errors: First, the student who made the error, second, other students in the class; at last, the teacher (Holley & King, 1971; Krashen & Pon, 1975; Cohen, 1975; Gattegno, 1976; Long, 1977; Robbins, 1977; White, 1977; Walz, 1982; Omaggio, 1986).[4]

Yet, the primary role of the language teacher is often perceived to be that of providing both error correction and approval of learners' performance. Supplying correct answers saves time and reduces confusion, especially when more than one error exists. But researchers cite many disadvantages of teacher correction. Chief among them is that teacher corrections do not establish a lasting pattern for long term memory (Fanselow, 1977) and may just be a reflex action triggered when the teacher hears an error. Providing the correct model is, however, the most frequent technique practiced by the teachers (Cathcart and Olsen, 1976; Fanselow, 1977; Lucas, 1976; Courchêne, 1980). It appears also from studies conducted by Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and from informal surveys undertaken in several language departments at DLI that learners tend to prefer to have teachers correct their errors (Cole,1989). The survey by Chenoweth et al. (1983) of 400 adult ESL students shows a strong preference for more error correction on the part of the students, in this case in the context of social conversation.

Students in this study attributed great importance to teacher corrections and probably expect their errors to be corrected by teachers. Ninety students (74 percent) indicated that they benefit more from teacher correction than from peer correction in class, because they "trust the teacher more than the other learners who do not always know the right method to correct mistakes." An approximately equal number of Arabic, Hebrew, and Turkish students in phases 1 and 2 of instruction and a high number of Persian students (25 out of 28) reported that they benefit more from teachers' corrections. Thus, the outcome of this question is inconsistent with the opinion of several scholars that teachers should be the last resort to correct errors.

Q7. Do you feel uncomfortable when you make an error in the class?
R: Yes/No

Q8. If your answer to question 7 is yes, did you feel more embarrassed making linguistic errors in the first month of the course than now?

Since these questions address the same issue, they are discussed here together. Only 48 students (40 percent) felt, in general, embarrassed making errors in the classroom interaction. Twenty-four students in weeks 9-22 pointed out that they felt more uncomfortable making errors than they had earlier in the course. Thirty-three students in higher levels of proficiency (weeks 23-47) felt likewise. While a close ratio of Arabic, Persian, and Turkish students in both levels of proficiency reacted similarly (39 – affirmatively, versus 38 negatively), the majority of Hebrew students seemed to react differently. Twenty-six out of 44 Hebrew students indicated that they were not embarrassed from the ninth week of instruction and beyond. Whether being, in general, unembarrassed making errors in the classroom is a personality trait or is a result of a relaxed classroom atmosphere and friendly student-teacher relationships is worthy of further investigation.

The fact that less than half of the students surveyed felt embarrassed making errors may be attributed, partially, to the students' having a common learning task and to a relatively relaxed classroom atmosphere in which sharing and communication flourish.

Following are some of the comments the students made in reference to this question:

> -Yes, of course, I feel uncomfortable. But the student should have the attitude that making mistakes does not diminish his pride or intelligence.
>
> -Yes, at first, I was sitting there making mistakes in front of strangers. But now we're all friends.
>
> -At the beginning of the course, I was extremely embarrassed to speak. I felt very inadequate and every time I was corrected, I felt insecure. Now I feel better because I know everyone in the class.

Q9. In the first month of the course, did you prefer to have corrected: a) all your linguistic errors, b) only errors that affect intelligibility, c) none of the errors, d) other . . .specify.

Q10. In this stage of the course, do you prefer to have corrected: a) all your errors, b) only errors that affect intelligibility, c) none of the errors, d) other. . . specify.

The question of which errors to correct is one of the main issues that have occupied teachers and methodologists in latest decade. Some of them (Burt & Kiparsky, 1971; Johansson, 1973; Allwright, 1975; Cohen, 1975; Long, 1977; Magnan, 1975; Walz, 1982; Nystrom, 1983; Chaudron, 1986) developed correction schemes and hierarchies of error correction in L2. The highlights of error correction follow:

1. **Errors that impede comprehensibility** These types of errors interfere with meaning and intelligibility. Such errors cause confusion among relationships of major constituents of the discourse (Omaggio 1986).

Research to find out which errors are most irritating and incomprehensible to native speakers of English, French, Spanish, German, and Russian provided contradictive results.[5] They are well summarized in Omaggio's work (1986, pp. 284-291). Ludwig (1982) noted that when lexical errors are combined with grammatical errors, a very serious impediment to comprehension results.

2. **Errors with stigmatizing or irritating effects on native speakers even if the message is comprehensible** (Johansson, 1973; Richards, 1971; Sternglass, 1974; Corder, 1975; Birkbichler, 1977). This raises the need to investigate the degree of stigma that native speakers attach to lexically, grammatically, and phonologically deviant forms and structures that non-native students produce frequently in their speech and writing. The degree of stigma may depend on the social status of native speakers and on the particular language. I am not aware of any study undertaken to investigate the effects of such errors on native speakers of Arabic, Hebrew, Persian or Turkish.

3. **Frequency and generality of errors** These are errors that occur frequently and deserve class time for correction (Holley & King, 1971; Olsson, 1972; George, 1972; Dresdner, 1973; Allwright, 1975; Cohen, 1975; Omaggio, 1986). Chaudron (1988, p. 141) provides data from five studies about the proportion of type of error and amount of treatment. Contrary to expectations, the data show that the more a type of error is made, the less the teacher appears to be inclined to correct it.

4. **Pedagogical focus** This includes errors that are relevant to current classroom practice (Cohen, 1975; Long, 1977; Hendrickson, 1978; Walz, 1982; Omaggio, 1986). Studies demonstrate that when instructional focus is on form, corrections occur more frequently (Lucas, 1975; Yoneyama, 1982).

5. **Student characteristics** • Individual differences: native language, attitude, personality • Past history: academic record, previous errors 3 • Current state: motivation, anxiety level, level of aspiration (Allwright, 1975; Walz, 1982; Omaggio, 1986).

Hendrickson (1979) has developed an error hierarchy in oral discourse based on the student level of proficiency, and the frequency of local and global errors with stigmatizing or irritating effects. Hendrickson, Cathcart and Olsen (1976) would like to see error correction based on severity determined by degree of stigmatization, comprehensibility and source of error in the student performance.

Birdsong and Kassen (1988), among others, suggest that students and teachers agree in principle on the seriousness of error. This type of accord, they maintain, could help students understand the rationale for correction of errors in oral classroom performance. They distinguish between two types of agreements in error evaluation: agreement in terms of rating severity and agreement about the seriousness of one item in relation to another. In addition, they advanced three hypotheses on the conformity of student and native/non-native teacher error judgment.

Worth mentioning is that the degree of error correction depends also on the sort of program (ES, EFL, bilingual, or immersion), and on the level (elementary, high school, university), and on whether the teacher is native or non-native (Lucas, 1975; Hamayan & Tucker, 1980). The responses of the Middle East School students to these two questions revealed that the majority of the students (67) in the languages under discussion preferred to have all of their linguistic errors treated during the first month of instruction. This number increased from the seventh week until the end of the course, when it reached 88 students. While 53 students in the first month liked to have their comprehensibility errors treated, fewer students (33) in phase 2 indicated so. This finding is inconsistent with the suggestion advanced by Hendrickson (1978), who advocated target global error correction for intermediate students. The fact that all of the 121 students surveyed in this study did not like to leave their errors unattended supports the argument posited by several researchers who are in favor of error correction.

Q11. Generally, do you prefer that your oral errors be corrected, a. immediately after completing your utterance, b. immediately after each error, c. immediately after a few errors, d. other . . . specify.

A number of scholars recommend placing more emphasis on correcting errors during drills than during communicative activities (Chastain, 1971, 1981; Rivers, 1975; Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Hendrickson, 1978; Knop, 1980; Hammerly, 1982). Thus, students could continue to speak the target language as in most natural conversations without many interruptions. Yet, interruptions in the form of classroom error correction are not as threatening as in general conversation and may be even invited by the learners. It is possible to treat interruptions as a result of breakdown in communication by asking the students: "Oh, do you mean that . . .?" (Fanselow, 1977; Hammerly, 1982). This kind of *Y means X* form is basically a question and correction invitation format (Schegloff, 1977, p. 379). It is also possible to make the interruptions look like a valid takeover (van Lier, 1988), which is made after the student pauses sufficiently or ends a syntactic unit with final intonation.

It is interesting to note that, unlike in natural conversation, the teacher can take the classroom floor at any time of an interaction with the student. Depending on error correction strategies, the teacher may ask the student who makes the error to repeat the correction or to acknowledge it in a more comprehensive manner than in natural conversation. The teacher may also choose to ask other participants to provide verification of comprehension of the correction – an option which does not occur in natural conversation (Schegloff et al., 1977; Chaudron, 1988; van Lier, 1988).

Hendrickson (1978) and Hammerly (1982) maintain, however, that correcting errors during the oral communication should be limited to major errors only and can sometimes be done by paraphrasing accurately what the students tried to say. If this is not possible, the error should be corrected on the spot, though not by interrupting the student in the middle of an utterance, but by waiting until a natural pause occurs. Hammerly believes that summarizing and reviewing errors at the end of the communicative activity is not very effective, because of the time lapse between making the error and correcting it.

The majority of students in this study pointed out that they did not like to be corrected too quickly in oral communication. Ninety-four students of Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, and Turkish (most of them in advanced levels of instruction) preferred to be corrected upon completing the utterance; 13 students liked to be corrected immediately after making an error and another 13 students preferred likewise after a number of errors.

Q12. When you do not provide an answer at once, would you prefer a wait time of, a. five seconds, b. 10 seconds, c. 15 seconds, d. all the time you need.

Discussing question 5, I have mentioned the importance of wait time. Wait time is an element on which teachers vary, and I assume a teacher would offer more wait time in case the student temporarily forgets the rules and needs a few seconds for recollection and for formulating his reply. Since wait time depends on the linguistic level of the student and the kind of activity, an adequate wait time is desirable in a classroom student-teacher interaction. In a typical conversation, for example, it is difficult to maintain lengthy pauses between utterances (van Lier, 1988).

Holley and King (1971) report that allowing 5-10 seconds before providing a response for a student, or cutting him off before he completed his utterance, increased student responses after initial hesitations by more than 50 percent. White and Lightbown (1984) and Long et al. (1984) also argue for greater wait time. Shrum and Tech (1985) found out that when the language of the solicitation was coded (L1 English or TL) L1 solicits resulted in significantly longer wait time than TL solicits.

Providing wait time seems to encourage students to respond, and it also lowers tension in the classroom. However, occasionally teachers allow more wait time to students in high levels than to students in below-average classes (Hoetker 1968, cited in Long 1977, p. 459; Allwright, 1975). Such conduct could stem from excessive sympathy for the student, teacher anxiety, and lack of probing skills (Brophy and Good, 1974).

Student responses in this study tended to support findings presented by Holley and King (1971), Rowe (1974), and Long (1984). Fifty-two students preferred to have 10 seconds wait time; 25, five seconds; and 26, 15 seconds. Only 18 students would like to have as much time as they need. Several students in this study commented that they need wait time to comprehend questions and formulate the answer, especially if abstract thinking is required.

Q13. After being corrected by the teacher, do you prefer, a. not to repeat the correct answer immediately after the teacher's model, b. to repeat the correct answer after the teacher's model, c. to later be asked a similar question, d. other . . .specify.

A considerable number of language educators agree that error correction would include features like: indication that an error had occurred, identification of the type and location of the error, selection of a treatment, provision of a correct model, verification that the correction is understood or what Allwright (1975) calls "test of efficacy," or "return to error-maker," and the offering of praise (George, 1972; Allwright, 1975; Cohen, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Long, 1977; Hendrickson, 1978; Hammerly, 1982).6 The information available in error treatment allows learners to confirm, disconfirm, and possibly modify the hypothetical rules about the TL. The more the learners are ready for the information, and pay attention, the more error treatment becomes effective (Annett 1969).

Since imitation of corrected responses is a passive process, George (1972) recommends that teachers not require it, except maybe for phonological errors. This finding is consistent with suggestions merge by Holley & King (1971) and opinions expressed by Corder (1974), Long (1977) who also prefer to prompt rather than to elicit exact repetition. (Corder, 1974; Long, 1977; Walz, 1982; McArthur, 1983; Hammerly, 1985; Omaggio, 1986).

In this study only four students did not prefer to repeat after the teacher's model and 95 students equally distributed among the four languages in phase 1 (47 students) and phase 2 (48 students) would like to repeat the correct response after the teacher's model. Twenty-one students would like to be asked a similar question on a different occasion.

Q14. Following an error you make, do you prefer that the teacher, a. rephrase the question, b. lead you to the correct answer, c. address the question to another student, d. repeat the question with no change.

Option (a) usually entails making the question shorter or simpler. This strategy, presumably, enables the student to understand the question and to formulate the answer.

In this study, 69 students (58 percent), most of them Hebrew and Turkish students in both phases, chose this technique as the best strategy of correction.

Option (b): Instead of furnishing the correct answer by the teacher, the latter hints at the correct form or supplies it indirectly. This technique of cueing is supported by many language educators (Corder, 1974; Holley & King, 1971; Long, 1977; McArthur, 1983; Hammerly, 1985).

To a considerable number of language teachers, the advantages of cueing are immense and may be summarized as follows: 1. Cueing leads to self-repair, 2. It gives students an important sense of achievement by their active participation, 3. It leads students to "rediscover" the presupposition necessary for correct performance. 4. Cueing leads students to internalize the criteria for correct speech rather than to depend on the teacher. 5. Students are more likely to remember "deep corrections" that they arrived at themselves rather than those provided by teachers. 6. Students will learn more from correcting their own errors than by hearing their teacher correct them (George, 1972; Hammerly, 1982).

In this study, contrary to the advantages cited here, only 11 students liked to be given hints leading them to the right answers.

Option (c): In order to minimize teacher's control in error correction, it is highly recommended to have students correct each other's oral and written errors in the belief that peer correction (like self-repair) is more apt to eradicate errors than is teacher's correction (Cohen, 1975; Long, 1977; Hendrickson, 1978; Hammerly, 1982; Walz, 1982; Pica and Doughty, 1985; Porter, 1986; Chaudron 1988). Other advantages of peer correction include: 1. Peer correction invites greater interaction and participation of students, 2. Sometimes, students correct errors in a more effective way than teachers do, because such corrections come from someone who has had the same experience (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972; Stevick, 1980). 3. It is less threatening than teacher correction. 4. Peer correction is most likely at a level comparable to that of the class.

Several studies of classroom interactions and experimental conversations have demonstrated that NNS peers provide substantial amounts of feedback. Bruton and Samuda (1980), for example, found that during group work, learners seem more apt to repair lexical errors and almost never miscorrect during unsupervised group work. Long (1980) and Crookes and Rulon (1985) found that learners are more likely to incorporate error correction in meaningful team tasks than in teacher- fronted classroom tasks.

However, there are those who also cite disadvantages of peer–correction. Chief among these disadvantages are: 1. It may invite favoritism to a certain group of students and evoke unfavorable comparison among students. Cohen (1975), for example, believes that students would tend to focus on linguistic forms when correcting spoken errors of their peers. 2. It is possible that peer–correction might be outweighed, for instance, by knowledge that other students are making the same errors or that a student refrains from listening to his peers (Fanselow, 1977; Long, 1977). 3. Overt peer–correction may be unproductive with students from cultures in which learners perform a new skill only after they have perfected it privately (Phillips, 1972).

Whether partially because of these disadvantages or not, students in this study indicated that peer–correction is the most unfavorable technique, as only two students preferred it. It is plausible, however, that the respondents assumed that only the teacher has a defined role of correcting errors.

Option (d) allows the student to reformulate his response and prompt him to supply the correct one. Fanselow's study shows that repeating the question without changing it is a surprisingly common practice among language teachers (Fanselow, 1977; Salica, 1981; Nystrom, 1983; Chaudron, 1988, van Lier, 1988).

The effectiveness of various types of repetition appears, however, to be dependent on incorporation of such features as reduction, question emphasis, and negation. The latter two types of repetition help distinguish corrective repetitions from approbative repetitions. The rate of the correct responses increased by more than 20 percent by using various combinations of repetitious utterances with emphasis (either questioning tone or stress) (Chaudron, 1977).

My investigation showed that 39 students (33 percent) considered repetition of a question without change the second most desirable error treatment. None of the Hebrew or Turkish students at higher levels of proficiency liked this technique of repetition. This type of treatment was preferred by half of the Arabic students at the lower levels of proficiency.

Q15. What is the type of correction you prefer for the error in the following discourse?
Teacher: *How many boys do you have?* (lit.)
Arabic or Hebrew student: *one boy.* (lit.)
Persian or Turkish student: *two boys.* (lit.)
Teacher: a) *Don't say "one boy" say "boy one"* (Arabic/Hebrew); *don't say "two boys" say "two boy"* (Persian/Turkish), b) *Mmmm*; c) *in English we say "one boy," "two boys," in Arabic and Hebrew–"boy one"; in Persian and Turkish–"two boy."* d) *Please repeat your answer, pay attention to the word order of "one boy"* (Arabic/Hebrew); *pay attention to the number of the word "boys"* (Persian/Turkish).

Each of the Arabic/Hebrew and the Persian/Turkish examples contains a grammatical mistake; the former–in word order, the latter–in number. In option (a), the teacher provides the model response desired immediately after unsuccessful student performance, but the teacher repeats the student's incorrect utterance. This type of correction has been a subject of controversy. Grew (1964) and Mitchell (1978), for example, believe that incorrect forms should not be given to students, because errors are easy to learn as correct forms. Seventeen students considered this option as next to the least desirable treatment of error.

In option (b), the teacher's reaction of *Mmmm* (disapproval) is confusing since it may sometimes interrupt the student, or confirm, or indicate the existence of an error. It is usually accompanied by gestures, facial expression, and change of voice quality (Long, 1977). As expected, this option was the least favorable one; only three students chose it. One student commented: "Disapproval hurts self-esteem, especially if you are really trying."

Option (c) contrasts the target languages with English. It was chosen by 60 students as the most desirable treatment of error in an almost equal ratio distributed among these languages and levels of proficiency, though 60 of the Hebrew students preferred it. The survey undertaken by Cathcart and Olsen (1976) showed that English as a second language (ESL) students also liked to have the error and the correct form compared as a teaching technique.

Option (d) draws the attention of students to the location and identity of the error and asks them to produce the correct answer. Though favored by the great majority of teachers, educators and methodologists, this type of treatment was the second most favorite one. Forty-three students, mainly Arabic, in weeks 9–22, chose it.

Q16. Which of your errors are most important to correct? (Put 1 for most important, 2 for second most important, etc.) a) Pronunciation (1, 2, 3, 4), b) Grammar (1, 2, 3, 4), c) Word order (1, 2, 3, 4), d) Vocabulary (1, 2, 3, 4).

Q17. Which errors do your teachers correct most? (Put 1 for most important, 2 for second most important, etc.) a) Pronunciation (1, 2, 3, 4), b) Grammar (1, 2, 3, 4), c) Word order (1, 2, 3,), d) Vocabulary (1, 2, 3, 4).

Several sounds in the sound systems of Arabic, Hebrew, Persian and Turkish differ from English, thereby causing problems for American students. It is difficult for most of them to pronounce the gutterals and some of the fricatives and emphatic sounds in Arabic, and the low front-rounded vowel [ö] and the high front-rounded vowel [ü] in Turkish. Furthermore, syntax in all these languages does not convey as much meaning as does morphology. This may partially explain why the respondents in this study attributed more importance to correct phonological and morphological errors than to lexical ones.

The majority of respondents indicated that phonological errors are the most important errors to correct, followed by morphological errors. Syntactic errors are the next-to-least important errors to be treated, and the least important errors to be attended are the lexical ones. Most of the students who preferred these priorities were at the higher levels of proficiency (23-47 weeks of instruction).

Generally, the lion's share of the students perceived that their teachers corrected errors in the order of their own preference, especially the phonological and lexical errors. When the order of preferences in each language was compared to that of the total student responses, Arabic and Turkish student responses coincided with that of the overall responses. However, the priorities of the Hebrew and Persian students were different than the rest of the students regarding the order of importance of phonological, morphological and syntactic errors. The great majority of Hebrew students set their priorities as follows: phonological errors were the most important errors to be corrected, followed by syntactic, morphological, and lexical errors. The Persian students consider morphological errors the most important errors to be corrected, followed by phonological, syntactic, and lexical errors.

It is possible, however, that students' attitudes toward what they consider to be the most and least important errors to correct had been formulated intentionally, or unintentionally, by the teachers' reactions to student errors. Hence they develop a sense of which errors are most serious (Birdsong and Kassen, 1988).

Obviously, more research is needed to determine which linguistic errors (if not addressed as they occur) are to be corrected first. Such research, if conducted, should take into consideration such variables as target language, native and non–native teachers' opinions of the target language, mode of communication and contact, as well as characteristics of the target language.

Summary

A summary of results follows.

1. The majority of the students, regardless of level of proficiency in the target language, confirm that teacher attitude in classroom affects the learning process.
2. A considerable number of students revealed that they are not discouraged by having their errors corrected, and about the same number of students feel comfortable making errors in classroom communicative activities. This is especially true of students at lower levels of proficiency, regardless of the target language.
3. Frequent correction of student oral errors interfered with the speech of about half the students, mainly at the lower levels of proficiency. The lion's share of the students --regardless of target language or level of proficiency-- preferred to be corrected after completing their utterances.
4. About two-thirds of the students disclosed that they learn more from teacher correction than from peers. The number of respondents from each language and level of proficiency presented an equal ratio.

5. Slightly more than half of the students preferred to have all of their errors treated from the early stages of instruction and the more they advanced in the course, the more they desired so.

6. A majority of the students, equally distributed among the four languages and the two levels of proficiency, preferred to repeat a model after the teacher; a practice not recommended by many educators. Interestingly, cueing techniques were favored only by few students.

7. Peer correction was the least favorable strategy of error correction. Rephrasing the question was preferred by nearly half of the students and repeating the question by the teacher was preferred by one-third of the students.

8. The following were student preferences for error correction in order of importance: phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical errors. There were, however, some differences in the order of preference between two of these languages.

9. Although there exist certain indications that a level of proficiency or a specific language is somewhat responsible for some of the results, it is premature to rush into conclusions about their influence on error treatment. More refined and more comprehensive questionnaires to include teachers' reactions and opinions about error correction are warranted. Likewise, it is important to pursue this study in order to establish systematic strategies for error treatment and a correlation between feedback and learning outcome by conducting class observations and group interviews.

Conclusions

The outcome of this study, while not itself sufficient for developing comprehensive generalizations about student preferences for error-correction techniques and student/teacher attitudes, presents, nevertheless, some general and specific implications for error correction. It has enhanced our understanding of the teaching/learning process and raised at least the possibilities for further research.

We have seen that the issue of error correction in classroom interaction is quite complex and controversial. The questions whether, when, which, how, and by whom the learner error should be treated remain as yet unresolved. There is still insufficient and inconclusive evidence provided by researchers to prove the superiority of any error technique over another. Additional research is warranted to clarify whether student reaction to error correction is associated with level of proficiency, and whether personality, age, self-concept, and the type of task involved play a role.

More studies are needed in particular to determine whether classroom oral corrections improve student speech or whether student errors should be included in the teacher's corrections. Another area of classroom research may address the question of how teachers adjust their speech in communicating error correction to learners in different levels of proficiency. Longitudinal research is greatly needed to establish a systematic relationship between types of strategies in error correction and student learning outcome.

Furthermore, the analysis of initiative and response characteristics of teacher–student classroom interaction deserves special attention as well the use of L1 and TL in classroom. Additional empirical classroom studies are needed to find out whether or not a relationship exists between teacher verbal activity and learner feedback, and whether student achievement is associated with student characteristics. The feeling remains strong, however, that verbal classroom interaction is partially responsible for the outcome of the learning process and it plays an important role in determining the effect of formal language learning.

As Corder (1981) mentions, the learner's interlanguage is an idiosyncratic dialect that merits special attention. The learner errors are not an exception, and it seems that teachers need some king of 'even-handed' and effective approach to treat learner errors in the meantime. Sometimes they have to ignore errors, sometimes correct them partially, and occasionally ask the maker of the error for self correction or elicit the correction from another learner. Different types of interaction may lead to different methods of treating problems of discourse. Teachers may derive enormous benefits from their own classroom observations, as well as from keeping notes and diaries of learner errors. Trial and error and finding an equillibrium between the demand for absolute correctness an accuracy on one hand, and absolute spontaneity without correction on the other hand, may be essential for error treatment too. It seems that even if faced with discouraging results, correction of errors and the use of feedback mechanism early in the instruction are a necessary condition toward linguistic accuracy.

At the DLI, the small class size, the long daily hours of classroom contacts, the relatively relaxed classroom atmosphere and the communicative strategies employed enable teachers to know the attitude, motivation, personality, capability and past learning history of the students. Teachers are able to sense student reaction to various types of error-correction techniques and explore which are the most effective ways to repair classroom verbal errors.

Notes

1. The reference here is to linguistic errors, not to content or slip-of-the-tongue errors. For details about different definitions of errors see: Richards, 1971; George, 1972; Long, 1977; Corder, 1981; Hammerly, 1982; McArthur, 1983. Details about views and attitudes toward

errors may be found in Cohen, 1975; Hendrickson, 1978; Corder, 1981; Hammerly, 1982; Chaudron, 1988.

2. A comprehensive discussion on the different issues relevant to fossilization is found in Omaggio's work (1986). See also Vigil and Oller, 1976; Terrell, 1978; Higgs and Clifford, 1982.

3. For details about lack of consistency in error treatment see: Mehan, 1974; Allwright, 1975; Cohen, 1975; McTear, 1975; Stokes, 1975; Fanselow, 1977; Chaudron, 1977, 1988; Long, 1977; Omaggio, 1986.

4. For useful examples of various strategies and choices in error treatment of oral and written errors, see mainly summaries of Walz, 1982; Omaggio, 1986. See also Holley and King, 1971; Allwright, 1975; Chaudron 1977; Fanselow, 1977; Long, 1977; Hendrickson, 1978; Bruton and Samuda, 1980; Wren, 1982; Kasper, 1985; Pica and Doughty, 1985; Stratton, 1986; Bradshaw, 1987; van Lier, 1988.

5. See for example: Chastain, 1971, 1981; Olsson, 1972; George, 1972; Johansson, 1973, 1978; Burt, 1974; Hanzeli, 1975; Guntermann, 1978; Politzer 1978; Galloway, 1980; Piazza, 1980; Palmer, 1981; Delisle, 1982; Enze, 1983; Magnan, 1983; Gynan, 1984.

6. Types of various remedial exercises are given by Burt and Kiparsky, 1972; George, 1972; Cohen, 1975; Powell, 1975; Fanselow, 1977; Ervin, 1979; Taylor, 1980; Walz, 1982; Omaggio, 1986; Birdsongs and Kassen, 1988. In addition to such exercises aiming at reducing errors, Fanselow (1977, p. 590) argues for greater "redundancy, contrasts and explicit information" in teacher's feedback, isolation of the error and delaying the feedback.

APPENDIX I

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE AND OVERALL RESULTS

Questions	Responses	
	Yes	No
1. Have you studied a foreign language before?	95	26
2. Does it affect you negatively if the teacher reacts angrily to the same errors you make repeatedly?	83	38
3. Do corrections of your oral errors in the class discourage you from speaking?	49	72
4. Do frequent/consistent corrections (by the teacher)		

of your linguistic errors interfere with your speech?	53	68
5. Do you think that your linguistic answers will be of a better quality if you take your time?	106	15
6. Do you learn more from the teacher's corrections of your errors than from those of other learners?	90	31
7.. Do you feel uncomfortable when you make an error in the class?	48	73
8. If your answer in question 7 is *yes*, did you feel more embarrassed making linguistic errors in the first month of the course than now?	57	65

	a	b	c	d
9. In the first month of the course, did you prefer to have corrected: a). all your linguistic errors , b) only errors that affect intelligibility, c) none of the errors, d) other.	67	53	0	0
10. In this stage of the course, do you prefer to have corrected: a) all your errors b) only errors that affect intelligibility, c) none of these errors, d) other.	88	33	0	0
11. Generally, do you prefer that your oral errors be corrected: a) immediately after completing your utterance, b) immediately after each error, c) immediately after a few errors, d) other.	94	13	13	1
12. When you do not provide an answer at once, would you prefer a wait time of: a) 5 seconds, b) 10 seconds, c) 15 seconds, d) all the time you need.	25	52	26	18
13. After being corrected by the teacher, do you prefer: a) not to repeat the correct answer immediately after the teacher's model, b) to repeat the correct answer after the teacher's model, c) be asked later a similar question, d) other.	4	95	21	1
14. Following an error you make, do you prefer that the teacher: a) rephrases the question, b) leads you to the correct answer, c) addresses the question to another student, d) repeats the question with no change.	69	11	2	39

	a	b	c	d
15. What is the type of correction you prefer for the error in the following discourse? Teacher: *How many boys do you have*? Arabic or Hebrew student: '*one boy*.' (lit.) Persian or Turkish student; '*two boys*.' (lit.) Teacher: a) *"Don't say 'one boy', say 'boy one'* (Arabic/Hebrew);*don't say 'two boys'* (Persian/Turkish), *say 'two boy'*, b) 'Mmmm' ; c) in Arabic and Hebrew–'*boy one*'; in Persian and Turkish–'*two boy*', d) please repeat your answer, pay attention to the word order on '*one boy*' (Arabic/Hebrew); pay attention to the number of the word '*boys*' (Persian/Turkish).	17	2	10	42
16. Which of your errors are most important to correct? (put 1 for most important, 2 for second most important, etc.), a) Pronunciation, b.) Grammar, c.) Word order d.) Vocabulary.				
*1	49	39	5	28
2	28	42	32	19
3	20	22	57	22
4	24	18	31	48
17. Which errors do your teachers correct most? (put 1 for most important, 2 for second most important, etc.). a) Pronunciation, b) Grammar, c) Word Order, d) Vocabulary.				
*1	65	39	3	14
2	19	48	29	25
3	18	18	55	30
4	19	16	36	50

*Each result is out of the total number.

APPENDIX II

RESULTS OF EACH LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

		ARABIC				HEBREW				PERSIAN				TURKISH			
		I 1-22		II 23-47		I 1-22		II 23-47		I 1-22		II 23-47		I 1-22		II 23-47	
Q		Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
1		11	4	10	4	20	4	16	4	10	1	14	3	8	2	6	4
2		12	3	10	4	17	7	13	7	9	2	9	8	5	5	8	2
3		4	11	5	9	8	16	14	6	7	4	2	15	1	9	8	2
4		8	7	8	6	6	18	13	7	5	6	5	12	1	9	7	3
5		13	2	12	2	21	3	17	3	10	1	14	3	9	1	10	0
6		8	7	8	6	16	8	14	6	9	2	16	1	10	0	9	1
7		6	9	0	14	11	13	7	13	5	6	7	10	6	4	6	4
8		8	7	7	7	8	16	10	10	4	7	9	8	4	6	7	3
9	a	6		9		13		4		6		15		9		5	
	b	9		5		10		16		5		2		1		5	
	c	0		0		0		0		0		0		0		0	
	d	0		0		1		0		0		0		0		0	
10	a	9		10		20		14		6		17		9		3	
	b	6		4		4		6		5		0		1		7	
	c	0		0		0		0		0		0		0		0	
	d	0		0		0		0		0		0		0		0	

APPENDIX II

RESULTS OF EACH LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

Q		ARABIC		HEBREW		PERSIAN		TURKISH	
		I 1-22	II 23-47	I 1-22	II 23-47	I 1-22	II 23-47	I 1-22	II 23-47
11	a	11	14	14	17	10	16	3	9
	b	1	0	4	1	0	1	6	0
	c	3	0	6	2	0	0	1	1
	d	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
12	a	2	1	3	5	4	5	4	1
	b	6	2	15	9	2	8	3	5
	c	3	8	4	4	2	1	1	3
	d	4	3	2	2	1	3	2	1
13	a	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	0
	b	10	13	20	12	8	15	9	8
	c	5	1	4	5	3	1	0	2
	d	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
14	a	7	4	14	19	6	6	5	8
	b	0	3	4	0	2	1	0	1
	c	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	d	8	7	6	0	3	10	5	0
15	a	0	3	1	5	0	3	0	5
	b	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
	c	4	7	14	13	6	5	8	3
	d	11	4	8	2	5	8	2	2

APPENDIX II

RESULTS OF EACH LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

Q		ARABIC		HEBREW		PERSIAN		TURKISH	
		I 1-22	II 23-47	I 1-22	II 23-47	I 1-22	II 23-47	I 1-22	II 23-47
16	P1	5/10	11/6	12/17	7/9	0/0	4/11	6/7	4/5
&	P2	5/2	2/4	4/3	6/4	2/1	6/2	1/1	2/2
17	P3	3/2	1/1	4/2	2/2	2/5	4/3	2/1	1/2
	P4	2/1	0/3	4/2	5/5	7/5	3/1	1/1	2/2
	G1	1/1	0/5	8/5	10/5	8/10	8/6	2/1	2/3
	G2	5/7	9/7	9/13	3/5	3/1	5/8	3/5	4/2
	G3	2/2	1/1	6/5	6/3	0/0	2/2	3/2	3/4
	G4	7/5	4/1	1/1	1/4	0/0	2/1	2/2	1/1
	S1	1/1	0/1	1/0	0/0	0/1	0/0	0/0	1/0
	S2	3/3	2/1	5/5	9/8	3/4	4/2	5/3	2/2
	S3	8/6	10/9	10/11	6/6	7/5	8/10	3/6	3/3
	S4	3/5	2/3	8/8	5/6	1/1	5/5	2/1	4/5
	V1	8/3	3/3	3/2	4/2	2/0	3/1	2/2	3/3
	V2	2/3	1/3	6/3	3/4	4/5	3/4	1/0	2/4
	V3	2/5	2/2	4/6	7/9	2/1	3/3	2/2	1/2
	V4	3/4	8/6	11/1/3	6/5	3/5	8/9	5/6	4/1

The numbers before the oblique line is the answer to question 16, the one after it - to question 17.

APPENDIX III

COMPARISON OF RESULTS BETWEEN THE 2 LEVELS OF PROFICIENCY OF ALL LANGUAGES TOGETHER

Q	I YES 1-22	II YES 23-47	I NO 1-22	II NO 23-47
1	49	46	11	15
2	43	40	17	21
3	20	29	40	32
4	20	33	40	28
5	53	53	7	8
6	43	47	17	14
7	28	20	32	41
8	24	33	36	29

Q	I 1-22	II 23-47	Q	I 1-22	II 23-47
9a	34	33	12a	13	12
b	25	28	b	28	24
c	0	0	c	10	16
d	1	0	d	9	9
10a	44	44	13a	0	4
b	16	17	b	47	47
c	0	0	c	12	9
d	0	0	d	1	0
11a	38	56	14a	32	37
b	11	2	b	6	5
c	10	3	c	0	2
d	1	0	d	22	17

APPENDIX III

COMPARISON OF RESULTS BETWEEN THE 2 LEVELS OF PROFICIENCY OF ALL LANGUAGES TOGETHER

Q		I	II
		1-22	23-47
15	a	1	16
	b	1	1
	c	32	28
	d	26	16
16	P1	23/34	26/31
&	P2	12/7	16/12
17	P3	11/10	8/8
	P4	14/9	10/11
	G1	19/17	20/22
	G2	20/26	22/22
	G3	11/9	12/10
	G4	10/8	8/7
	S1	2/2	1/1
	S2	16/15	17/13
	S3	28/28	27/28
	S4	14/15	16/19
	V1	15/7	13/9
	V2	13/11	9/15
	V3	10/14	13/16
	V4	22/28	26/21

The numbers before the oblique line is the answer to question 16, the one after it - to question 17.

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Author

Sadok Masliyah, Hebrew Branch Chief, Multi-Languages Department, Middle East School at the Defense Language Institute, Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: comparative Arabic and Hebrew linguistics, teaching methodologies, and Hebrew studies.

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Experimenting with the New Methods in Arabic

Michel Nicola

Two experiments were conducted in 1986 and 1987, and pursued further in 1988, using different approaches in Arabic teaching. The control group was taught mainly by a grammar/audiolingual method, while the experimental group received more comprehensible input and focused more on meaning and less on form. In both experiments, the experimental group outperformed the control group in listening and reading proficiency but lagged behind them in speaking. Deviations from a true experimental design are discussed, and suggestions for further experimentation are included.

The proficiency movement in language teaching/learning has been generated largely by theoretical views of what language is and how it is acquired. Some experiments indicate that the new proficiency-oriented approaches–such as Total Physical Response, Natural Approach, Silent Way, Suggestopedia and others–are more effective than audiolingual and structural approaches. But it is thought that the empirical bases of these approaches are insufficient, that more experimentation is needed (Lambert, 1987).

This modernization movement does not have easy going. In Arabic, for example, it has been stated that "the methods revolution...has bypassed the Arabic teaching profession" (Mcgrath, 1987). This feeling is shared by many teachers in many languages. The 1985 issue of *Al-Arabiyya*, the journal of the American Association of Arabic Teachers, has been devoted to teaching innovations, and the articles in this issue indicate that the transition from discussions to implementations is slow and forced. The actual innovations, such as those reported by Rammuny (1985, p. 29), consist of modifications and adjustments to a grammatical syllabus and an audiolingual course, of the kind about which Terrell (1977) wrote "falls far short of the major revisions I propose in this paper" (p. 327).

Certain ideas and techniques, mainly from Terrell's Natural Approach (NA) (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) were used in two experiments conducted at the Defense Language Institute (DLI) in 1986 and 1987, and pursued further in 1988. In each experiment, the new treatment was given to one section of a group consisting of four sections, the other three serving as the control group. The sizes of the entering classes were 35 and 37, so that each of the four sections of each class started out with 8 to 10 students. The experiments took place during the last three-quarters or two-thirds of a 47 week course.

Description of the Experiments

The following changes were made:
(1) New listening and reading material was added to the basic course.
(2) The instruction of this new material focused mainly on meaning and little on form.
(3) Some tests during the course were changed in accordance with these two changes.

The results of the experiments were assessed on the basis of the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) given to all students at the end of the basic course.

Table 1 describes the focus of each hour of instruction. Each lesson took one day, i.e., six hours of class and evening homework. At the end of each four lesson cycle there were two days of reviewing and testing (not shown in the table). The daily schedules varied somewhat in the different parts of the course as well as between the 86 and 87 classes.

Table 1
Daily Schedules and Homework

Hour	CS	ES
1	Book dialog, vocab drill, dictation.	Homework review, new dialog, conversation.
2	Lab: Numbers drill, in-context translation, dictation, listening comprehension questions, sentence translation.	
3	Introduction of new lesson. Explanation of grammar and vocabulary exercises.	
4	Speaking on everyday subjects. Role playing, games.	
5	Pattern drills Free selection drills Free oral expression	Listening to new material (NA type of input).
6	Comprehension drill Reading aloud, translation.	Reading comprehension exercises, translations (Material from textbook and outside).
Homework	Variable (Studying dialog & vocabulary, preparing new dialog, copying, translation etc.).	Comprehension drill and translation of other recorded material.

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Three of the six daily hours (#2. 3. and 4) were identical for the experimental section ES and the control sections CS, and three were different. The corresponding activities for ES and CS are listed opposite each other for comparison; the actual order of instruction was slightly different.

Daily Lesson Cycle for the CS

During all the hours except the fourth, the CS activities consisted of drills on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, reading aloud, translations and question-and-answer sessions in class. The material was restricted to the content of the textbook. It was organized by grammar and taught by an audiolingual type of drills.

During the third hour, in which the daily lesson started, the new grammar and vocabulary were explained, illustrated and drilled using isolated sentences unrelated in meaning. Next, the dialog (or text for intensive study) contained in each lesson was briefly introduced. Part of the evening homework for the day was to memorize or study the dialog or text using the tape on which it was recorded.

During the fourth hour, it was necessary to use new words and grammar because much of what was needed for talking about everyday affairs was either not included in the textbook or came too late. The new material was introduced in the same way as the book material, by drills and memorization.

The pattern drills during the fifth hour were of the typical audiolingual variety. The free selection drills consisted of groups of questions, each on one topic. The free oral expression consisted of a subject for discussion along with a number of recently learned words printed on a page, which were supposed to be used in the discussion. But in practice real discussion rarely took place; the activity was little more than a question/answer type of exercise.

The comprehension drill of the sixth hour consisted of a passage, usually recorded as well as printed, followed by questions. This passage was listened to, discussed, translated, and sometimes read aloud.

The evening homework included one or more of the following: studying or memorizing the lesson's dialog, memorizing the new words, copying, listening to the comprehension drill, transcribing from tape. Next morning, during the first hour, the dialog was recited or discussed, words and grammar were reviewed, and dictation was given.

Daily Lesson Cycle for the ES

The ES did neither the pattern drills, free selection drills, nor free oral expression; they did, however, the comprehension drill as homework. They neither memorized nor intensively studied the textbook dialog, only translated it as a part of their homework. They also translated sentences they had recorded during the lab hour and they answered the questions on the comprehension drill in writing.

Homework was checked during the first hour, and a new dialog was used for listening and speaking. The dialog was prepared for each lesson to include only a small amount of new material; it resembled natural conversation rather than an artificial book dialog. As an example, the book dialog and the new dialog for lesson 28 (about 12th week) are shown below. It can be seen that the former focuses on the correct use of numbers, a notoriously complex task rarely mastered fully even by natives. The latter is designed to motivate students to continue talking even after they are done with it, something that can hardly result from the book dialog.

Book Dialog, L. 28

-Did you attend the women's liberation conference this week?

-Yes, and more than twenty correspondents attended it, among them, five from foreign countries.

-Was there an Egyptian among the five correspondents?

-Yes. There was Mr. Mahmound Fikry, and also Miss Amaal Fahmi, correspondent for the Egyptian Broadcasting Service.

-How many female correspondents attended the meeting?

-Ninety nine female correspondents from America's fifty states.

-Have the newspapers published the results of the conference?

-Thirty newspapers published them, most of them American.

New Dialog, L. 28

-Did you attend the women's liberation conference?

- Why should I attend it? I am a man. Did *you* attend it?

-Yes. Many men attended it.

-Were there more women than men?

-Yes. Many more.

-What was the subject of the conference?

-I do not know.

-You do not know? Why did you go then?
- I went to meet women.

Entirely new material was developed for the fifth and part of the sixth hour of the lesson cycle. Most of it was adapted from various sources. It included some authentic material from *Voice of America* broadcasts, television news and reports from Arab countries, e.g., Arabic *Sesame Street*, etc. Following Krashen's suggestion (1985, p. 73), one topic was pursued in each cycle or successive cycles. The material included adaptations from Arab history, mainly from Hitti's *History of the Arabs* and *History of Syria*: material about recent and contemporary events, medicine, mining, energy, economics, law, the women's movement, mathematics, and stories from various sources, mainly the two Arabic classics *Arabian Nights* and *Kalila wa Dimna* using rewrites prepared by Nicola (1986) and Younes (1989).

The fifth hour was conducted as follows. The students listened to a passage once or twice, and their first task was general comprehension of *when, where, who, what, why, how*. Subsequently, the class listened to the text again, and this time more thorough comprehension was expected. The text was explained using paraphrases of language they already knew, and sometimes some drawing and acting. Sometimes, however, it was impossible to avoid translations completely.

Features of the Experiment

Questions to check for comprehension were never directed to any particular student but to the class as a whole. Those who knew the answers spoke up, and often the others discussed the answers with them. This created a relaxed atmosphere where no one was put on the spot and students learned from and talked to each other.

The subject matter was chosen to be of interest to the students, and they were consulted about the choice. Thus, they were listening to and reading things they wanted to know about.

Form was not completely neglected. Often student mistakes were corrected indirectly by restating what the student said in proper form. On rare occasions, students were even prompted to restate properly what they said. When a student asked about a particular point of grammar, an explanation was always offered. But the explanation never took more than five minutes. Detailed grammar expositions and drills were never conducted during this hour.

The sixth hour was scheduled for reading. Part of the sixth hour was used for translations of material from the textbook and other materials. The main purpose of this activity was to learn to use the dictionary. Afterwords students were given a new text and assigned a comprehension task, e.g., answer questions, give the gist, write the story or list pieces of specific information. During this hour a student could choose to work independently or with one or two partners. Students were allowed to assist each other, and the teacher was checking student and group progress.

Testing

All the five phase tests, given at 24 lesson intervals, were the same for ES and CS, and so were the listening tests given in the lab after every four lesson cycle. The reading tests, however, given after every four lesson cycle were different. For the CS they consisted of translations of sentences or very short passages and did not contain any new material. For the ES they contained a reading and also a listening part, and consisted of comprehension questions, usually of the multiple choice type, on new texts that may contain material not seen or heard before, but dealing with the same topic covered in that cycle. Authentic material taken out of newspapers and actual broadcasts was sometimes used, but complete comprehension was not expected.

Nearly all tests for reading and listening comprehension were in English. They required detailed and accurate translations and/or answering multiple choice type questions written in English. Beyond some dictation in the first parts of the course there was no testing in writing because this skill was judged to be unimportant for the kind of work in which the graduates were going to use the language.

The Experimental Design

Deviations from a true experimental design were the following:

(1) The experiments did not start until a quarter or a third of the way into the course.

(2) About half of the teaching materials and nearly all the tests were common to the ES and CS.

These deviations limited the use of the target language in the ES class. Even though every effort was made to keep the use of English to a minimum, success was less than complete. Too often the negotiation of meaning had to give way to translation. Even when the students understood a new term they never were satisfied until they had guessed the English equivalent and had it verified by the instructor. This tendency was puzzling at first, but not for long. First, half the material was organized to suit a grammar/audiolingual course, the order of presentation following grammatical considerations rather than comprehension or practical usefulness for communication; and English translations of all new terms were given in the book. Such organization of materials made it impossible to present the material in order of ease of comprehension, i.e., start with concrete "here and now" terms and build on these to move on to more abstract terms. Second, testing relied heavily on translation and was nearly all in English, which practically forced students to demand translations.

In a better design, the experiment would start right at the beginning of the course, with ES instructors using the target language exclusively from the first day. The teaching material for ES would be all different from that of CS, and the bulk of testing would be in the target language. Of course, the final DLPT test used for comparison of results is mostly in English and cannot be changed, but this need not be a problem. The tests in the final few weeks of the course could be made in English, and that would be adequate preparation for those types of questions; translation properly belongs at the end of language study, not in the beginning.

(3) The attrition rates in ES and CS were comparable, but students transferred between the two groups in the middle of the course, which made comparison of final results a bit harder. However, these transfers were very few: one in 86, from CS to ES; and two in 87, from ES to CS.

(4) *Reactive Effects*. It is known that any group selected for a special treatment will for that reason alone do better than the regular groups regardless of the treatment. This phenomenon is known as the Hawthorne effect. There are also other reactive factors like the teacher's expectations. A class that is expected to do better generally does so (Tuckman, 1978, p. 152). In these experiments, the reactive effects have probably been dimished by the fact that the CS were also experimental in as much as they did not adhere totally to the content of the course. The CS teachers also added new material, but only in the speaking hour, a more conservative departure which they believed would yield the best results.

(5) Different teachers taught the ES and CS. Thus, the results of the experiments could have been due not to the new materials and teaching methods but to the different skills and commitments of the teachers. It will be argued below (last section) that it is neither useful nor necessary to control the teacher variable.

Results and Discussion

The results of the final DLPT are shown in Table 2.

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Table 2.
DLPT results for the ES and CS in 1986, 1987 and 1988

Year	1986		1987		1988	
Group	CS	ES	CS	ES	CS	ES
#entering students	26	9	29	9	60	30
# finishing students	18	7	23	7	43	18
Listening scores						
#students	4, 9, 5	3, 2, 2	3, 6, 14	2, 3, 2	9, 11,21,2	1, 7, 6, 3, 1
score	2, 1 + ,1	2, 1 + ,1	2, 1 + ,1	2, 1 + ,1	2, 1 +, 1,0 +	2 + ,2.1 + ,1, 0 +
Means (a)	1. 47	1. 57	1. 26	1.50	1. 31	1. 61
Signif. (b)	None		p< 0.20		p< 0.05	
Reading scores						
#students	4,8, 6	5,1, 1	4,11, 8	3,3, 1	2,22,19	1, 4,5, 8
score	2,1 + ,1	2,1 + ,1	2,1 + ,1	2,1 + ,1	2,1 + , 1	2 + ,2,1 + ,1
Means (a)	1.44	1.79	1.41	1.64	1.30	1.44
Signif. (b)	p< 0.05		p< 0.20		p< 0.20	
Speaking scores						
#students	2, 4,6, 6	1,1, 5	6,11, 6	1, 2, 4	7,13, 19	6,5, 5(d)
score	2 + ,2,1 + ,1	2,1 + ,1	2,1 + ,1	2 + ,1 + ,1	2,1 + ,1	2,1 + ,1
Means (a)	1.56	1.21	1.50	1.36	1.35	1.53
Signif. (b)	p< 0.10		None		p< 0.20	
Meeting graduation standards (c)	11%	43%	4%	14%	14%	39%

(a) A plus (+) was counted as a half point in the computations.
(b) The t-test for the comparison of means was used. The percentages shown indicate the probabilities that the differences in the means were not real but due to chance.
(c) 2 in listening and 2 in another skill.
(d) Two students from ES and two from CS did not take the speaking test in 1989.

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(1) In both years, the ES did better than the CS in listening and reading but worse in speaking. The speaking results have probably been influenced by the less than perfect reliability of the oral interview method of testing. There might have been a reverse Hawthorne effect here; testers might have unconsciously upped their standards when they knew they were testing students in ES. They had this information in 86, but not in 87 or 88. The ES speaking results improved in 87, and in 88 they exceeded those of CS.

(2) The improvements in reading in 86 were spectacular, but were not maintained at the same level in 87. The probable reason for this decline is that it was in 87 that the new graduation requirements (of *2* in listening and *2* in another skill) were first implemented. These requirements clearly favor listening, which must have caused emphasis to be placed on it at the expense of reading.

(3) Except for ES speaking, the results of both ES and CS for 87 were worse than those for 86. This could have been due to the lower caliber of the 87 class. The supervisor and more than half the teachers were also different in the two years, and this could have been responsible for part of the difference.

The 1988 Class

A similar treatment was given to the 1988 class. This class was large, consisting of nine sections (90 students), each three of which were taught by a team of five or six teachers. One of the teams relied heavily on the same approach and teaching materials that were used in 86 and 87 with ES. Similarly to the preceding ES class, they started this experimental program about one third of the way into the course, but they had new material from a course utilizing interactive video, and also new listening material that was prepared for the lab hour in the last 24 lessons. The other two teams used the same materials and approach as CS. The DLPT results were similar to those for the 1986 class in so far as the ratio of students attaining the graduation standards. This time, however, the experimental group outperformed the control group in all three skills. Their remarkable listening performance was probably due to the interactive video and the additional listening material added to the lab in the final phase.

The experiments led to the conclusion that adding a lot of new material and focusing on meaning is more effective in developing listening and reading comprehension than relying on textbooks and focusing on form.

Further Experimentation

Even thougb this conclusion has not been definitively established because of the design flaws listed above, the results are still significant since in different years similar results were obtained with different students and teachers.

The first three of the five deviations from a true experimental design can be removed relatively easily. That would require better advance planning by teachers and administration. The fourth will not be difficult to overcome if we take advantage of the fact that language teaching is now in a period of transition. The "conventional" methods of teaching are probably rarely followed in their original forms. These tendencies make it possible to design and conduct experiments where the control group is also experimental, the two groups differing in the amount of their departure from the old audiolingual/grammar practices. To a certain extent, this was the case in our experiments. In a better design, however, the differences need to be spelled out in detail and agreed on by the teachers of the two groups beforehand. These arrangements would resolve the problem of the reactive effects.

The remaining problem, having to do with the teacher variable, cannot be remedied by having the same teachers teach the two groups by different methods, for it is known that the teacher's preference for one method or another alters the outcome. It is thus necessary to have experimenters who are completely impartial regarding two methods of instruction and two sets of teaching materials based on philosophies and assumptions that may be contradictory. Such occurences are rare among the ranks of practicing teachers; they are likely to be educational researchers. And even if such researchers should conduct the experiments, how useful would their results be to practicing teachers?

Possibly a better approach is not to try to establish empirically that method A is more effective than method B regardless of the teachers who apply them, but to try to find out which of the two methods is more effective if each is applied by teachers who are committed to it. Call this a partial retreat from scientific objectivity; it is more pragmatic. This kind of result would probably be more effective in persuading teachers to look seriously at what their colleagues are doing, for the experiments can involve them directly, and it is easier to believe one's own experience than that of others. The modernization movement may thus gain impetus, for it would be impelled not only by the theories, doctrines and experiments of the experts, but also by the force of facts as confronted every day in the trenches.

Note

Attrition of ES of the 1988 class (12 out of 30) is larger than that for CS (17 out of 60), but the difference was due to nonacademic reasons. Some ES students took the DLPT and left before the end of the course; they are not counted among the 18 who finished the course.

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Author

Michel Nicola, Instructor, Arabic Department, School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: courses integrating dialects and Modern Standard Arabic; second language acquisition theory.

James W. Dodge

James W. Dodge's scholarship and service to the international community of foreign language educators were in many ways similar: each bore the stamp of integrity and commitment to the profession. From August 1986 until his untimely death in November 1989, he served as a member of the Advisory Board for *Dialog on Language Instruction* and *Applied Language Learning*.

Jim Dodge was born in 1937 in Long Beach, California. He graduated from Brown University with an MA in Applied Linguistics. Prior to his graduate studies, he obtained a B.A. degree in German.

He joined Middlebury College in 1971, serving as Technical Advisor to the Language Schools. Additionally, from 1973 until his death, he served as Secretary-Treasurer of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Prior to this appointment, he was a consultant to the Board of Directors from 1968 to 1973. He was past President of the National Federation of the Modern Language Teachers' Associations and treasurer of the Steering Committee of the Joint National Committee for Languages.

Jim frequently provided assistance and advice on technology issues to colleges and institutes on the national and international scale. His expertise in the application of technology to foreign language instruction was in high demand. He graciously shared his knowledge and insights with many, and we, along with the entire foreign language teaching community, will miss him greatly.

FACULTY EXCHANGE

Guidelines for Presentations

Lidia Woytak

The purpose of these guidelines is to give general orientation to Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center faculty and staff interested in giving presentations. *Guidelines for presentations* consists of two parts: Part One is general in content and Part Two applies specifically to DLIFLC.

Part One

General Information

Q: Why should I be interested in giving a presentation?

A: Your presentation will give you an opportunity to share your ideas with other professionals about the latest developments in your field. Since you will present your ideas directly to the audience, you will be able to inspire your listeners, to move them into action, or induce them into a new line of thinking.

Q: How should I go about preparing a presentation?

A: To prepare a presentation, you should:

- verbalize the objective
- research the subject
- settle on a theme
- outline/organize
- prepare visuals
- rehearse

Q: How do I capture ideas for my presentation?

A: Whenever an idea related to your presentation comes to your mind, jot it down.

Q: What sequence should I apply for putting ideas together?

A: You may apply either the *proposition-proof-conclusion sequence* or the problem-analysis-solution sequence.

Q: Can you describe the proposition-proof-conclusion sequence?

A: Yes. The proposition-proof-conclusion sequence consists of: (1) hypothesis, thesis, or proposal to be demonstrated; (2) supporting generalizations, themes, or causal connections which test or prove it; (3) conclusion or implications which logically follow. This sequence renders itself to scholarly presentations.

Q: What about the problem-analysis-solution sequence?

A: According to George T. Vardaman, the problem-analysis-solution sequence progresses from a statement of the situation (problem) to why it exists (analysis) to how to handle it (solution). This sequence is applicable to technical and organizational presentations.

Q: How do I gather facts?

A: You can gather facts through:

literature searches
personal observations
experimentation
questionnaires
interviews

Q: Will an outline help me to shape my presentation?

A: Certainly. An outline will help you to state the purpose of your presentation, organize your ideas, build a solid framework, and sequence your presentation. See model below:

Outline of a Presentation

Amount of Time

Purpose/Introduction

____

____

______________________________ ________

Device/Medium (specify)

Content (Use caption, phrase, or sentence form)

________ (1) ______________________________

________ (a) ______________________________

________ (b) ______________________________

________ (c) ______________________________ ________

________ (2) ______________________________

________ (a) ______________________________

________ (b) ______________________________

________ (c) ______________________________ ________

________ (3) ______________________________

________ (a) ______________________________

________ (b) ______________________________

________ (c) ______________________________ ________

Conclusion

____

____

______________________________ ________

____

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Q: What are the benefits of a good outline?

A: According to Terry C. Smith, author of *Making successful presentations* (1984), a good outline: (1) supplies a solid framework; (2) ensures direction; (3) provides a checklist of important items; (4) helps maintain a proper emphasis; (5) keeps your talk from "running away;" (6) gives you something your superiors may review.

Q: If I wish to give a presentation outside of DLIFLC, whom should I contact?

A: Look for announcements titled "Call for Proposals," in foreign language journals, bulletins, and newsletters. These announcements are issued by the conference organizers.

Q: How often do these conferences occur?

A: Usually national associations hold conferences once a year; however, regional meetings are held more frequently.

Q: What kind of presentations may the conference organizers call for?

A: You may be asked to prepare a symposium, a colloquium, or a short presentation.

Q: What is a symposium?

A: A symposium is a high-caliber session usually organized by a well-known scholar who knows the experts in the field. A symposium proposal should include the purpose, motivation, justification, names of all participants and a complete account of what each participant will do in the symposium. See an example of a symposium announcement from the 1988 *American Educational Research Association*.

1.30 Constructive Effort in Learning (Division C-Symposium)
12:25-1:55-Sheraton, Aurora, 4th Floor
CHAIR/DISCUSSANT *Marlene Scardamalia*, CACS
PARTICIPANTS

Three Levels of Goal-Directedness in Learning.
Evelyn Ng, OISE
Level of Constructive Effort, Prior Knowledge, and Learning. *Carol Chan, Jud Burtis*, OISE
The Development of Skill Across Domains: The Role of Learning Strategies,
Margaret Ogilvie, Brock University (Canada); *Rosanne Steinbach*, OISE
Consistency of Constructive Learning Effort Across Domains of High and Low Cultural Familiarity.
Carl Bereiter, Gertrude Tinker, OISE

Q: What is a colloquium?

A: A colloquium consists of a presentation on a major topic followed by comments from up to three invited discussants and concludes with open discussion. See an example of a colloquium session.

PM 1:30-2:45 Doubletree, Bonsai III
Hawthorne Redivivus: Strategies for Foreign Language Teacher Change
SPONSOR: DLI
CHAIR: *Patricia Dandonoli*, ACTFL
Hastings-on-Hudson, NY
PRESENTER(S); *Neil Granoien*, Defense Language Institute, Monterey, CA

This session will provide an opportunity for participants to clarify for themselves the connections between theories of adult learning and experiential training design, with specific implications for foreign language teacher training. From there, they will be able to posit development strategies for application in their own settings–single department, school, or district.

Q: What about short presentations?

A: Usually, short presentations constitute a major part of conference programs. Usually, 3 or 4 short presentations on a specific topic are lumped together into one session and introduced by a chair of a given session. Presented below is an example of such a session in the 1988 ACTFL Conference.

> **AM 9:45-1100 Sheraton, Los Angeles**
> **Testing Foreign Language Aptitude in the United States Government**
> SPONSOR: ACTFL
> CHAIR: *Charles W. Stansfield,* ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics
> PRESENTER(S); Charles W. Stansfield, ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics; *Thomas Parry,* U.S. Government Language School; *Madeline Ehrman,* Foreign Service Institute; Arlington, VA; *Rebecca Oxford,* Annenberg/CPB Project, Washington, DC
>
> This is a report to the profession on an invitational conference on current and proposed research and development in the testing of foreign language aptitude in the US government. The program was coordinated by ERIC Clearinghouse with support from the Interagency Language Roundtable.

Q: To what extent should I rely on audiovisual media in my presentation?

A: Since you are the primary communicator you should use audiovisuals only to support your communication.

Q: In what way can visuals enhance my presentation?

A: In many ways; an old Chinese proverb says: "One picture is worth a thousand words." They can arouse interest, encourage participation, prevent misunderstandings, persuade, focus attention, save time, reinforce ideas, add humor, enhance credibility, and explain the inaccessble.

Q: What are the advantages of using transparency projectors?

A: In addition to offering all the advantages of chalkboards or flipcharts, projectors let you face your group, and thus, permit better interaction with the audience.

Q: What are the advantages of preparing transparencies?

A: First of all, you can prepare them in advance and, most important, they are easy to carry.

Q: How can I ensure the effective use of audiovisuals?

A: You can ensure the effective use of audiovisuals by selecting the ones which are:

proper in form and style
supplemental to your presentation
intelligible to all participants
simple and cost effective

Q: What else can help me to decide whether to use an audiovisual?

A: If you cannot decide whether to use an audiovisual or not, read the questions posed in Appendix : *A checklist for the visualizer*.

Q: How can I be sure that my audiovisuals will work?

A: You need to test the equipment prior to your presentation. Vardaman in his book *Making successful presentations* writes:

> You must do everything humanly possible to be sure that your machinery will work (including, for example, making sure that you have an electrical outlet or an extension cord!), that people will be able to see and hear with ease (including testing the mike and checking reception from the most distant part of the room before the presentation), and that your aids are in proper sequence and are easily handled (including placing them in some convenient spot and putting them in final order before the presentation).

Q: How can I be sure that my ideas will be presented properly?

A: You can try out your ideas on others. A week or so before your presentation, you may gather your volunteers for a rehearsal of your presentation.

Q: What should I say to the volunteers prior to the rehearsal?

A: Before giving your dry run, you may ask them to give "constructive" criticism following your presentation. Specifically, you would like to know what they liked and, next, what would they do differently.

Q: What are the benefits of a dress rehearsal?

A: A dress rehearsal will familiarize you with the setting of your presentation, reveal your timing and provide practice using your visuals. Additionally, a dress rehearsal will give you a chance to videotape your presentation.

Q: What should I observe while viewing the videotape of my rehearsal?

A: Pay special attention to your gestures, eye contact, body language, interaction with visuals, voice, and "maddening" mannerisms.

Q: How should I dress for the presentation?

A: Wear conservative dress. Solid colors are preferred. Terry C. Smith advises:.

> Conservatively well-dressed is the goal. Ten minutes after you've gone, the audience should have forgotten what you were wearing. But if they were asked, they should agree that you were well-dressed.

Q: How should I respond to questions coming from the audience?

A: First of all, respond to all questions cordially. You may use introductory phrases such as: "I'm glad you asked . . .," or "That's a good question." Next, be sure you listen carefully. If you are not sure you understand the question, ask for clarification. Smith recommends that you follow the KISS formula: *Keep it Short and Simple.*

Part Two

DLIFLC's Stand on Presentations

Q: Does DLIFLC encourage faculty and staff participation in conferences?

A: In accordance with *Academic Policy and Standards: DLIFLC Pamphlet 350-10 and DLI Master Plan for a Strategy for Excellence* (1989), DLIFLC fully encourages faculty and staff participation in conferences.

Q: What areas of foreign language education are of special interest to DLIFLC?

A: DLIFLC is especially interested in such areas as: (1) instructional methods and technques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields, i.e., linguistics, education, communication, psychology, and social sciences.

Q: Does DLIFLC provide an ideal environment for sharing information on new developments in foreign language education?

A: DLIFLC provides an ideal environment because a lot of teaching and research takes place here everyday. Both researchers and teachers work at the Institute, occasionally, the same employee conducts teaching and research simultaneously.

Q: What kind of forums are arranged for presentations within DLIFLC?

A: Over the years, the DLIFLC has developed several forums for DLIFLC Faculty and Staff presentations. The Academic Advisory Program annually organizes a faculty seminar. The Research Division occasionally presents symposia. The language schools organize either symposia or faculty workshops.

Q: What should I do to be considered for the program of the conference or the seminar at DLIFLC?

A: A specific announcement will refer you to a person in charge of a given program. Get in touch with that person either by phone or by inter-mail and arrange a meeting to discuss your proposal. Preferably, you should present your proposal in writing.

Q: Who is responsible for the content, scope, and form of my presentation?

A: You are. If you have any questions regarding your presentation, discuss them with your supervisor.

Q: Are there any regulations with which I should be familiar prior to my presentation?

A: Yes. You should be familiar with AR 600-500 *Standards of Conduct for Department of the Army Personnel* and AR 340-17 *Release of Information and Records from Army Files*, and AR 340-21 *The Army Privacy Program*. All these references are available at the Administrative Support Division.

Q: Who, at DLIFLC, can help me to prepare a presentation?

A: First, discuss it with your supervisor, who will refer you to the academic coordinator in your school. The coordinator may give you advice pertaining to the organization of your presentation; your references, sources, research procedure and presentation of findings. The coordinator may also put you in contact with other people who may help you with your presentation.

Q: Does DLIFLC sponsor any courses on effective presentations?

A: Yes, DLIFLC sponsors an OPM course titled *Effective Briefing Techniques*. The course takes about 3 days and is conducted on site. If you are interested in signing up for this course, contact Marge Bennett of Training and Development, CPO, telephone #5230.

Q: Do language schools offer any workshops on making successful presentations?

A: Some schools offer such workshops. Check with your academic coordinator.

Appendix

A Checklist for the Visualizer

1. Is your point worth making?

    Is it essential to the understanding of your talk?
    Is it aimed at your audience?
    Does it deserve the emphasis which a visual gives?
    What is your objective?

2. Can it be adequately verbalized?

    If it can be verbalized, why visualize it?

3. Does the verbal commentary impart meaning to the visual?

    Does your visual supplement the verbal medium rather than replace it?

4. Does your visual achieve unity?

    Is it free from incompatible and complicating ideas, symbols, art techniques, typefaces?

5. Are your symbols acceptable?

    Have you considered your audience?
    Are your symbols meaningful to your audience?

6. Is it visually fluent?

    Is the art functional or ornate?
    Is it really one visual or several?
    Are complex subjects presented in comprehensible units (drop-ons)? Was the art work designed for this medium, or borrowed without modification from another type of presentation?

7. Is the visual honest?

Does it plead special interest?
Have the facts been distorted?

8. Does it utilize all available techniques which will improve its efficiency?

Is color used effectively? What does it contribute?
Have you considered sequential disclosure or build-up?
Have you achieved a dynamic presentation?

9. Is the visual intended for the benefit of the audience or of the speaker?

Have you avoided "Program Notes" and "Speaker's Outlines?"
Is your projectual a visualization or a "reading session?"

10. Is your visual completely readable by the entire audience?

Will there be unobstructed view of the screen? Is the type large enough?
(Minimum 3/16" letters for an 8" x 10" transparency)

11. How much effort did you put into the visual?

Is it as good as you can make it?
Have you sought criticism from others?
Have you tested the visual?

12. Has it achieved your objectives?

Has your audience understood it?
Has it changed attitudes and/or behavior?

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Author

Lidia Woytak, Faculty Development Specialist, Faculty and Staff Development, Defense Language Institute. Interests: foreign language curriculum, copyrights, and semantics.

A Solution for DLI's "Arabic Problem"

Howard D. Rowland

On the whole, one may safely say that DLI has achieved much success throughout the years and many students have been successful at learning their assigned languages and then have been able to function on the job as military linguists. But sometimes DLI's language-teaching endeavors have not been so successful, and graduating students have not met the requirements demanded of them. In many cases the reason has been that the language is simply very difficult to learn. In the case of Arabic it has been both due to the difficulty of the language and, in my opinion, the fact that the wrong approach toward teaching the language has been followed.

Statistics tell us that most DLI Arabic students do not achieve more than Proficiency Level *1+* in any of the three language skills in Modern Standard Arabic (i.e., speaking, listening, and reading). DLI's *Annual Program Review* dated 24 January 1989 reveals that in FY 88 only 21% of the Arabic students met graduation standards (not counting the 19% attrition). In fact, 71.9% failed to reach Level 2 in listening, 80.1% failed to reach Level *2* in reading, and 68.5% failed to reach Level *2* in speaking. As a DLI Arabic instructor from 1984 to 1988, I personally observed that the average graduate speaks Modern Standard Arabic (hereafter referred to as "MSA") very haltingly, understands somewhat more than he speaks, and has only very limited reading proficiency and writing skills. As for the students' proficiency in a given Arabic dialect after taking the 16-week dialect course following the basic MSA course, statistics are not available since proficiency in the dialects is not formally rated at DLI. However, my educated guess is that the average dialect proficiency is only about *0+* in speaking and *1* in comprehension. In fact, in their speech, graduating students very commonly mix up MSA and the dialect in a type of mishmash that strikes native speakers of Arabic as both humorous and somewhat pathetic.

Can anything be done to remedy this situation? The answer is a resounding YES! We can fix DLI's "Arabic problem." But to do so will demand some time and effort and will require that a different, non-traditional approach be taken. Before going into the causes of the problem and offering my solution to it, I should briefly define, for readers unfamiliar with Arabic, what MSA is and what Arabic dialects are.

MSA, also known as Literary Arabic, is the standardized language that has been used for virtually all written and formal oral communication purposes throughout the Arab world since the early Middle Ages. Thus it is the language of the Koran, medieval and modern literature, the modern mass media, and the language used on most formal occasions when non-extemporaneous speech is called for. Unfortunately for those learning it as a foreign tongue, MSA is a highly inflected language, with a complex grammar and vast vocabulary. Furthermore, it is written in a script which is difficult to learn, has many fancy but widely-used variations, and normally does not show short vowels and the doubling of consonants.

MSA is normally never used as a means of oral communication by Arabs in their daily lives--except marginally among educated speakers. Nevertheless, it is held in very high regard by its native speakers and carefully cultivated by them, especially since it is considered the language of Islam and the symbol of the Arabs' hope for future political and economic unity.

Arabic dialects, also called colloquial Arabic or spoken Arabic, are the normal means of everyday oral communication used by all Arabs of all social classes in informal situations. The dialects are normally not used in written communication or the mass media--except in movies and plays containing conversational dialogue. The dialects are far less complex than MSA in terms of grammar structure and word usage, and therefore much easier than MSA for a foreign learner. In fact, they differ to such an extent from MSA in terms of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary that one would have to consider MSA and any given dialect to be two different languages. Furthermore, the dialects differ considerably from area to area, depending on the distance between the respective areas. The spoken Arabic dialects enjoy little prestige or status among their educated native speakers, who usually compare them very unfavorably with MSA and consider them not even to be real "languages" having any sort of "grammar."

In short, whenever Arabs talk to each other, they speak their dialect(s), but when they read, write, listen to the news, or give formal speeches, they use MSA. Every educated Arab knows and uses these two versions of his language. This diglossia poses a great problem for foreign learners who, if they want to attempt to function in Arabic as native speakers do, must learn both MSA and one of the major dialects. It is unlike the case of most languages where one initially studies a single basic language which is used for all types of communication–and then proceeds to become acquainted with the various levels of speech and local variations which differ from the standard version. So foreign learners of Arabic have to decide:

1. Do they want to attempt to learn "Arabic" as educated native speakers know it? If so, they must study both MSA and a major regional dialect–and learn to understand other major regional dialects.

2. Do they mainly want to learn Arabic for reading and research purposes–without necessarily going to the Arab countries? In such a case, it is sufficient to know MSA.

3. Do they intend to do business with Arabs and/or live in an Arab country? If so, they must learn that country's dialect, and it is recommended that they learn at least a minimum of MSA for reading and writing purposes.

Our DLI students have various military missions, but they tend to be mainly in the following categories:

- Many of them study Arabic and are then assigned to units slated for possible deployment to the Middle East. Such personnel would mainly need oral skills (colloquial Arabic) and a bare, but usable, minimum of reading and writing skills (MSA).
- Some study Arabic and become voice interceptors, which would mean that they mainly require listening skills (colloquial Arabic containing lots of military vocabulary and jargon).
- Some are interrogators, which means that they would need to learn to speak and understand colloquial Arabic and acquire a minimum of MSA for reading and writing purposes.
- A few of them, especially officers, are sent to Arab countries as military attaches, advisors, or liaison officers. They would need to learn to speak and understand the dialect of the country they are being assigned to, as well as a respectable amount of MSA in order to read and write the language with some facility and follow the basics of news broadcasts, formal speeches, etc.

Thus, one can logically conclude that all of our students need to learn some form of colloquial Arabic, that most of our students need a minimum of MSA reading skills, and finally, that some students need both a good knowledge of colloquial Arabic and at least a fair knowledge of MSA.

To what degree have these students' needs been met by DLI's Arabic program? The short answer is–very inadequately. Until now DLI has concentrated on attempting to produce linguists who are well-grounded in MSA and reasonably familiar with one of the major dialects. They usually acquire only mediocre proficiency in the four skills in MSA--which will be required on the job only minimally for most of them--and they become only minimally proficient in colloquial Arabic--which is what all of them will mainly need on the job. So our approach has not been the right one. We have stressed the study of MSA, whereas we should have been emphasizing the learning of the colloquial dialects.

Even if our approach of primarily teaching MSA had been the right one, we still have not been successful in this endeavor--as the *Annual Program Review* statistics show. Why is this? I believe that there are three main reasons for this:

First, MSA, as such, is too difficult a language to learn well in the short time that students are at DLI, and to expect them to all achieve Level 2 proficiency in two or more skills is not realistic. Personal experience has shown me that it takes a person at least several years of nearly full-time effort just to learn to fluently read the articles on the front page of any Arabic newspaper.

Second, our DLI Arabic instructors are, I believe, just as competent and diligent as the DLI instructors of any other language, and they are probably more skilled at language teaching than most of the Arabic professors in our nation's universities. But since MSA is a formalized, literary language not used in daily oral communication, it is usually taught as such--both at DLI and elsewhere. Native speakers of Arabic seldom speak MSA with the rapid ease and fluency with which they speak their dialects, so Arabic students in the classroom never hear their instructors speak extemporaneous, rapid-fire MSA like the other DLI language instructors speak their languages. Furthermore, Arabic instructors at DLI use MSA only inside the classroom or when occasionally communicating with students in the hallways, offices, etc. When outside the classroom and among themselves, these same instructors speak only their various dialects–which the students cannot understand–and this means that the students receive only limited language reinforcement experience beyond the classroom. As a result, no matter which course is used and no matter how good the instructor is, the teaching of MSA tends to emphasize the tedious acquisition of complex grammatical structures and the deciphering of the written word rather than the approach of having the native speaker's speech serve as a model of a living language of everyday communication. This fact cannot help but negatively affect student motivation.

Third, the MSA courses used by DLI so far have not been suitable for DLI's needs. Only the original DLI Arabic course, used up till the early seventies, was tailored specifically to DLI students, but it required improvement and updating. However, DLI chose to replace it with another course, produced under the direction of an outside civilian consultant, which ultimately proved to be unsuccessful due to its heavy emphasis on grammar and use of material which students found very dry and largely irrelevant. In the late eighties, two other courses began to be used experimentally. One was a Saudi course called *Arabic for Living*. This course heavily emphasizes Islamic topics and thus its use was discontinued, probably since it was not considered appropriate for our students. The other course is a Lebanese one called the *GO (Gulf to Ocean) Course*, which is still being used and is taught to a large degree via the medium of interactive video-disks activated by computers. The two basic volumes of this course are, in my opinion, very deficient in terms of how the language is presented to foreign learners and with regard to the relevance of the content to DLI students (since they deal mainly with life among the Lebanese middle class prior to the outbreak of the civil war in the mid-seventies). However, DLI recently has produced a large body of supplementary materials to accompany the course, and they no doubt will enable the course to be much more successful.

But even if any of the courses above had been fully successful, they still would not have provided DLI students with what they need--a good command of a major Arabic dialect, plus minimal basic skills in MSA--because they are all MSA courses. For example, the Saudi course *Arabic for Living* teaches students to order meals in a restaurant in MSA--which no one in Saudi Arabia normally ever does, and in the *GO Course* all the dialogues which take place in Beirut and elsewhere are in MSA--an absurdity, since such conversations always take place in the Lebanese dialect. Does it make sense for us to teach our students to use a language in communicative situations in which the Arabs themselves never use this language?

The solution, I believe, is to reverse our priorities and change the orientation of our Arabic instruction to stress the teaching of the three major dialects and teach MSA mainly as a supplementary skill. If this were done properly, a DLI student could achieve Proficiency Levels *2* to *2+* in speaking and listening comprehension in one of the three major dialects, *1+* to *2* in listening comprehension in the other two major dialects, *1* to *1+* in reading MSA, *1* to *1+* in MSA listening comprehension, and *1* in speaking and writing MSA. Our Arabic students would then start meeting graduation requirements in much larger numbers and be far better prepared to perform their language-related military missions.

The reason that DLI students could reach Levels *2* and *2+* in speaking and understanding a spoken dialect--whereas they seldom achieve such levels in MSA--is that the dialects are far less complex than MSA in terms of grammar and vocabulary. My personal experience of living in Aleppo, Syria, in the early sixties has convinced me that a person knowing no Arabic at all can pick up and use, within three or four months, enough colloquial Arabic to get around quite well in an Arab country and hold reasonably meaningful conversations on a number of topics. Learning to read, write, and understand MSA, however, is quite another kettle of fish and takes much longer.

Here is how I envision the language program which I feel that DLI Arabic students should follow:

Students would study, for eight to eleven months, one of the major dialects (Egyptian, Syrian, or Iraqi). Their study of the dialect would involve only oral use of the language, since Arabic dialects are generally not used in written form. The course should utilize some sort of practical, simplified, but accurate Latin transcription system (with an accompanying Arabic script version for the convenience of the teacher) and follow lesson patterns similar to those of the *Saudi Arabic Headstart Course, the Sinai Orientation Program* (which teaches the Egyptian dialect to peace-keeping forces), or the three DLI Egyptian, Syrian, and Iraqi courses currently in existence--all of which are pedagogically and motivationally far superior to the various MSA courses which DLI has been using during the last few years.

During the last three months of this period, the students should spend one hour a day learning to read and write Arabic script and very simple sentences in MSA, and this activity should take place at the end of the day. This would prepare the students for later on, when they will be studying MSA full-time, and will minimize the shock of changing over from spoken Arabic to written Arabic.

After the initial eight to eleven month period of studying a given major dialect, the students would then spend one month familiarizing themselves with the other two major dialects. They would first spend two weeks studying one of these dialects, and then two weeks studying the other one. This would enable them to learn the basic key features of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary which differ from those of the dialect that they have been concentrating on. The differences between the three dialects are significant–but not difficult to learn after one has already learned one of the three dialects.

The course's final stage of three to four months would be devoted to teaching the students MSA, with the emphasis on listening comprehension and reading. The teaching materials used should contain mainly military, political, and geographical vocabulary. Also, about one hour a day–preferably at the end of the day–should be devoted to the students' maintenance of speaking and listening skills in the dialect that they have studied.

Special individualized Arabic programs should be available for students who have particular, specific needs. For example, if a student knows that his mission will involve only written Arabic, then he should be enrolled in a course which teaches only MSA. If a student needs to learn the Moroccan, Yemeni, or Saudi dialect because he is being sent to Morocco, North Yemen, or Saudi Arabia, then we should have a native speaker teach him the dialect by means of special materials designed for this purpose (or use an existing commercial course).

There are various stumbling blocks on the path of implementing such a curriculum. Here are some of them, and how I would propose dealing with them:

1. We do not have full-course materials designed to teach Arabic dialects to beginning DLI students. We would have to create such materials. However, we do have models for such materials in the *Saudi Arabic Headstart Course*, the *Sinai Orientation Program*, and the DLI Egyptian, Syrian, and Iraqi Arabic add-on courses. Producing appropriate materials would require several years of work, the corresponding resources, and careful organization and utilization of available talent.
2. Administratively, DLI is currently not set up to have such a program. Each of our three Arabic Departments is a mixture in terms of the national origin of the instructors, the students receive final tests only in MSA, and instructors are hired only on the basis of their mastery of MSA. What we could do is to simply convert our three Arabic Departments into Arabic-Egyptian, Arabic-Syrian, and Arabic-Iraqi Departments and reshuffle the instructors accordingly. Also, we could train the instructors to be certified testers in the dialects and have them administer the appropriate oral proficiency exams. Proficiency level expectations upon graduation would also have to be adjusted to reflect the new emphasis on proficiency in the dialects as opposed to MSA.
3. Native-speaker instructors generally feel more comfortable teaching MSA than the dialects. They feel that it is more "proper" to teach the eloquent literary language, rather than the spoken dialects which they perceive as not being "languages" and having no "grammar." Teaching the dialects is something which encounters their resistance for a variety of cultural, political, and other reasons. However, if good and appropriate materials were available for teaching the dialects, their teaching job would be far simpler than at present, they would be focussing on speaking and listening skills in their native spoken language, and their students would be far more motivated and successful and far less frustrated than now.
4. Many Arabic instructors might feel that their jobs would be threatened if this approach were followed since student inputs vary according to dialect and since any DLI Arabic instructor can teach MSA, but cannot normally teach a dialect other than his own. Proper organization and administration can eliminate this fear. For example, if student inputs are larger for one dialect than for another, the native speakers of the other dialect can focus on the teaching of the MSA portion of the course. Also, some of them can no doubt be cross-trained to teach a dialect other than their own. Furthermore, there is always a need for course development and course maintenance work to be done,

and their services could be employed in this endeavor if and when their teaching services are temporarily not required.

I say, let us begin now and do something to solve DLI's "Arabic problem." Perhaps we could start by having a small-scale trial or pilot program, using currently available commercial materials. In any case, let us not only make our Arabic program a success–let us also make it a model to be followed in the future by all of the Arabic studies programs in our nation's prestigious universities. We can do it, and we owe it to ourselves to try.

Author

Howard D. Rowland, Plans and Programs Coordinator, NonResident Instruction Division, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: teaching of Arabic and Russian,development of Arabic language-teaching materials.

German FLO Goes EIDS

Helma Zeuge

Part of the German Final Learning Objectives Program (FLO) for Cryptologic Training System (CTS) students has recently been converted to the Electronic Information Delivery System (EIDS) and is going through its first runs. This article describes the FLO program–and more precisely, the CFLO program for cryptologic students–its exercises, what a workstation in a FLO lab looks like, and what advantages and disadvantages of EIDS can be seen so far.

Some instructors loath FLO, some like it, and some don't even know it. Those who know it may realize that FLO is a reincarnation of the Basic Course Enrichment Program (BCEP). BCEP was developed in the early 1970s when one of DLI's user agencies concluded that CTS students were not receiving enough specialized training. BCEP was a program that trained students in dictation and translation of material containing numbers and military terminology. Consequently, the German department was split in two, one with CTS students, the other with non-CTS students. After a few years, a reunification of departments occurred and all students again followed the same curriculum without BCEP training.

But now, there is FLO. FLO has a new appearance and a larger volume than BCEP had, and therefore, it should be useful to take a look at FLO of 1990.

What kinds of students are in the program?

The FLO program was developed by a team of military specialists and civilian instructors for CTS or signal intelligence (SIGINT) students. Most of these military linguists are first-enlistment students. They begin their three-part linguist "life cycle" with language training here at DLI, continue with specialized follow-on training at Goodfellow Airbase, and from there go to their initial duty assignment.

The DLI FLO program prepares the students for their specialized training at Goodfellow. It is a program separate from the regular curriculum, but integrated with it, i.e., it begins after the twelfth week or, approximately, after one third of the 34-week Basic German Course and runs parallel to it. At that time, all students are issued practice tapes which they are expected to use in preparation for their class/lab work.

Grading is done separately and does not affect the students' grades in their regular classes. Furthermore, not all grades count equally. Exercises are graded by instructors or by machine. If a student does not achieve a required grade average on certain types of exercises, he will be sent to remedial lab.

Starting FLO this early in the course is in keeping with the *DLIFLC Accreditation Self-Study Report* of February, 1989, which states that "incorporating certain kinds of job-relevant language training into the DLIFLC basic courses may enhance student success during follow-on training."

What skills are required?

The guidelines state the following objectives for the three skills of transcribing, translating and summarizing:

> 1. Produce grammatically and orthographically correct transcripts of spoken Interagency Language Roundtable skill level 2 texts containing vocabulary and other language elements which have high frequency in military contexts.
> 2. Translate and summarize written skill level 2 texts ...
> 3. Summarize in English skill level 2 texts ... spoken at a normal rate.

The students must not have any hearing deficiencies (although some might develop them later on the job), because a very high degree of sound discrimination is required. Not even a trained native speaker will sometimes be able to tell the difference between, e.g., *49* and *940* *(neunundvierzig* versus *neunhundertvierzig or neunvierzig)* or similar pairs of numbers, especially when the numbers are spoken at a fast pace, are slurred or are interfered with by static.

In addition, the better a student knows his vocabulary, the better will be his performance, since understanding known material and writing it down is significantly more easy to do than writing down unknown words. Besides, every little spelling mistake counts.

The same can be said about grammar. Since it may be impossible to distinguish between a *den* or *dem*, the student's own grammar monitor should tell the student where a dative case is required (*dem*) or an accusative (*den*).

Lastly, the students must be able to handle the equipment with ease and with care; when writing by hand, they must write fast and clearly enough to be able to read it again later; when using computers they must be good typists. To achieve the latter skill, they also start out with a typing tutorial which, at the same time, familiarizes them with their computer.

FLO Exercises

FLO exercises include: Number Dictation, Letter Dictation, Phonetic Alphabet Dictation, Mixed Number/Letter Dictation, Word Dictation, Noun Recognition Exercise, Out-of-Context Number Phrase Dictation, In-Context Number Phrase Dictation, Sentence Translation/Multiple Choice, Sentence Dictation, Sentence Translation, Listening Comprehension, Short Multi-Pass Dictation, Short Multi-Pass Translation, Long Multi-Pass Dictation, Long Multi-Pass Translation, and Gist.

Number Dictation Each exercise contains 50 number groups, five groups across the page, ten lines down. The number of digits for each group can be: two digits, three digits, two and three, four, three and four, five, and four and five digits. Exercises are spoken at different speeds, the beginning ones at 50 digits per minute, then their speed increases with each exercise by 10-digit intervals until they reach 120 digits per minute.

Letter Dictation There are 50 letters read in the following way: *A*, *B*, *C*, etc., and the students simply write *A*, *B*, *C*. Again, the speed of the reading increases with each exercise or group of exercises.

Phonetic Alphabet Dictation Again 50 letters per exercise, but here, they are read as names: *Anton*, *Berta*, *Cäsar*, etc. and are written down as letters: *A*, *B*, *C*.

Mixed Number/Letter Dictation Examples: 987C, 86G12, 476X1.

With the above four exercises a passing grade of 90% is required. It is imperative that not only the entire number or number/letter group is correct (one digit wrong makes the entire number group wrong), but also that they are written in the exact sequence as they are read. If a number is not understood or if there is no time to write it down, then the student must leave a space so that, for example, the tenth number group actually appears in tenth position, and the 50th group ends up in the 50th position.

Word Dictation Short words are read at not too fast a pace and enunciated clearly. This exercise was designed to help the students familiarize themselves with the computer keyboard and practice typing.

Noun Recognition Exercise Out of 20 sentences per exercise, the student is to pick out and write down only the nouns. Example: "*Der Zoodirektor sprach im Fernsehen über seine Angst vor Löwen.* (The director of the zoo talked on TV about his fear of lions).

Out-of-Context Number Phrases 30 phrases must be transcribed in their entirety. Examples: *15 M-113; Telefonnummer 73 0 16; 13 Liter* ....

In-Context Number Phrases There are ten sentences per exercise. Example: *Jeder Soldat trägt drei Handgranaten* (Every soldier carries three handgranades) The nouns that occur in combination with a number - they are underlined in the example - are to be picked out and transcribed.

Sentence Translation/Multiple Choice The students hear sentences. Shown on the screen are multiple choice translations of the sentences. The student is to choose the correct translation.

Sentence Dictation and Sentence Translation In the first case, students hear sentences and write them down verbatim; in the second case, they hear sentences and write down a good English translation. Vocabulary is taken from the DLI textbook *Illustrated Military Situations* or from authentic East-German sources.

Listening Comprehension While hearing a paragraph of German, students may take notes on the computer, then type in their answers in English. These answers have to be checked by an instructor.

Short and Long Multi-Pass Dictations and Translations The texts read are either to be transcribed verbatim or to be translated into correct English. For this type of exercise, a word processing program is used. The students type the text, print it out and hand their printout to the instructor for correction.

Gist The students hear a passage, take notes, and from that prepare a written summary or gist. This need not be a verbatim rendition, but should still be as accurate and complete as possible.

Description of a FLO-EIDS Work Station

Each student station is equipped with an IBM-AT compatible computer that was built by Matrox on contract for the U.S. Army. Under the screen of the terminal, there are two disc drives for 3 1/2 inch floppies: Drive A contains the FLO program and remains with the station; drive B is to be used by the student who inserts his individual disc. A station has interactive videodisc capability. It also has audio capability, but does not make use of it. Instead, students use their tape recorders that they already have and play a tape with the exercises that they want to do or practice.

At this point, an automatic timing device has not yet been built in. However, the computer records not only the answers and the results, but also the time that a given exercise should take and the time a student actually spent on it. Thus, by comparing the times, the instructor can tell if a student pushed the pause button, which the student is not supposed to do.

So, to begin, students put on their headphones, insert the disc, "tell" the computer which exercise they are going to do and start the tape recorder. When they do a number or letter exercise, a field with 50 spaces appears on the screen, and the computer records the starting time and then the answers that the students have typed in.

Upon completion of the exercise, the students receive instant feedback: They see not only their score, but also which numbers were wrong or missing and what the correct number should be.

In noun-recognition exercises, too, misspelled or missing words are indicated together with the correct spelling as well as the number of points deducted. For minor misspellings, one point is deducted, for more than one mistake, two or three points, with a maximum of three points per word.

Advantages and Disadvantages of EIDS

EIDS relieves the instructors of many hours of the tedious and absolutely boring task of correcting and grading the exercises. This was the main reason why instructors loathed the program. Because FLO work is done in conjunction with regular curriculum work, it sometimes took several days before the exercises could be graded and students would receive their feedback. With EIDS, feedback is now available immediately. It is also evident that EIDS grades with much more consistency than when the grading is done by different instructors, therefore, results are more reliable.

With EIDS, students work individually; they can practice a certain type of exercise as much as they want and thus they progress at their own pace. Last but not least then, it is definitely helpful when students practice working with equipment that is similar to equipment at Goodfellow, it will give them a good headstart when they start training there.

A disadvantage of machine grading is that the grading cannot be as fine-tuned as when done by an instructor. But these differences are so negligible that we may ignore them.

Author

Helma Zeuge, Instructor, German Department C, School of Germanic Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA. Interests: An integrated teaching and learning approach.

Sound Stories

Grazyna Dudney

The language teacher employing the communicative approach to language learning can never have too many sources of material that stimulate students to converse spontaneously in the target language. An unusual and yet promising source I came across is an audio tape produced by the Learning Development Aids Company in Wisbech, Great Britain. The tape titled "Sound Stories" is actually designed to develop verbal skills in children with learning difficulties. It consists of three sections of sound sequences that extend for ten seconds, thirty seconds, and two to four minutes. The sound sequences are not accompanied by any explanatory dialogue; they stand by themselves. Below are some examples chosen from the shorter sound segments:

a. Footsteps, key turning in lock, door opening, footsteps, door shutting.
b. Tap being turned, glass filling, drinking, glass being put down, sign.
c. Footsteps in gravel, car door opening, entering car, car starting.
d. Telephone ringing, footsteps rushing downstairs, telephone stopping.
e. Brushing shoes, shoe falling, picking up shoe, brushing, shoe falling.
f. Tennis ball being struck repeatedly, crashing of glass.
g. Diving into water, repeated splashing of water, swimming sounds.
h. Ticking of alarm clock, ringing alarm, yawning.
i. Clapping of thunder, silence, raining softly and heavily.
j. Spreading of butter on a piece of bread, eating.
k. Sawing wood, hammering nails.
l. Removing dishes from cupboard, fat cooking, egg cracking, egg frying, transferring food to plate, cutting with knife.
m. Filling a kettle, boiling water, whistling, filling a teapot, pouring tea, drinking.
n. Brushing, silence, vacuum cleaner starting, vacuuming, vacuum cleaner stopping, moving furniture, opening closet, footsteps.

The "sound stories" can be used as the source of a game, as exercises for reviewing vocabulary, as time fillers, as a context for enhancing a certain aspect of grammar, or most importantly, as a lead in for a classroom speaking activity. For example, story c with the person getting into a car can be used as an introduction to a discussion on different means of transportation; stories *f* and *g* about tennis and swimming might introduce the topic of sports. My own favorite is story *n* with the vacuum noises. I use it as a basis for discussion on male/female stereotype roles and the place of women in present day society. It is gratifying to observe students engage in spontaneous arguments with each other as they try to rationalize in the target language their choice of a man or a woman as the one running the vacuum cleaner.

A lead in activity based on one of the sound stories might be carried out as a small group exercise in which the lesson begins by playing the sound sequence once or twice and having each group determine (guess) what is happening on the tape. After a short discussion among the students, in the target language of course, spokesmen present the consensus of their groups to the whole class and their rationales. The teacher facilitates each presentation and additional student comments and, finally, tells the class the exact content of the sound sequence. Afterward, the tape is played again, and the teacher generates questions or ideas leading directly to the main lesson topic.

The activity described above is simple, enjoyable, and extremely versatile. The amount of time devoted to it is easily controlled by the teacher and can range anywhere from five to fifty minutes, depending on student tasks and the follow up activities. It can be used at level *0+* or at level *3* or higher. The degree of depth one explores the topic can vary, and the language used to describe each sound story could vary from labeling objects with simple phrases, to narrating the story, to using abstract language suggested by sound associations and discussing hypothetical situations.

The activity in any of the forms mentioned above will promote communicative language use. There is considerable student-student interaction in which students work together to close an information gap that can only be closed by verbally sharing the emotions, feelings, and associations the sound sequence awakened in them. The element of the unknown together with the sound stimulus animate the students' imagination, lower their affective filters, and bring a part of the real world into the classroom.

The recording studio at DLI has a large library of audio-tapes with various sound effects pertaining to a wide variety of topics. Using those sound effects we could easily create our own sound stories.

Author

Mrs. Grazyna Dudney, currently the chairperson, Polish Department, School of Central European Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: sociolinguistics, bilingualism, and content-based instruction.

"Eavesdropping" in Foreign Language Instruction

Stefan J. Konderski

Many drills and exercises used in foreign language teaching, including listening comprehension practice, seldom represent authentic oral communication. However, such activity as "eavesdropping" on a telephone conversation enhances communication. During this activity, the instructor either makes calls to or receives calls from an imaginary interlocutor while the students' task is to suggest meaningful, functionally acceptable responses to the language sequences they hear, and thus to complete the communicative exchange. By creating whole responses rather than merely supplying missing words, as is the case with most textbook drills, the students have an opportunity to practice formation of communicative responses.

The instructor can adapt this activity to virtually any level of instruction by selecting the grammatical and lexical form of the sequences to be "overheard" by the students. Thus, he or she can steer the students' responses in the desired direction. The students, for example, can be directed towards the appropriate social register, prompted to switch from one grammatical convention to another (gender, number, tense/aspect), stimulated to express a particular functional response, such as agreement, disagreement, or surprise. If desired, in addition to listening comprehension and speaking, the students may be instructed to write down the "overheard" sequences as well as their own responses. While conducting this exercise the instructor should pay less attention to the grammatical correctness of individual lexical items and more attention to the functional appropriateness of the responses, including such frequently neglected components as stress and intonation patterns.

One of the advantages of the "eavesdropping" activity is the variety and flexibility of acceptable responses. In most cases, as in real life communication, there will be no single "correct" response; instead, there will be a number of functionally and/or grammatically acceptable and unacceptable utterances, which can provide a wealth of material for discussions of communicative performance in the target language.

While teaching various languages, I realized that the students enjoyed this activity and viewed it as an interesting and challenging exercise. It should be pointed out that the pedagogical value of the "eavesdropping" technique is greater than the value of simply making the students practice telephone conversation in pairs. In contrast to telephone conversation in pairs where the dialog can go out of control, the "eavesdropping" technique allows the instructor to prompt the students into the proper communicative channel.

Author

Stefan J. Konderski, Instructor, Polish Department, School of Central European Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: theoretical and applied linguistics, contrastive studies.

Classroom Observation

Ilsoon Shin

Classroom observation is an excellent technique for monitoring curriculum. Chairpersons can collect information on the actual implementation of the curriculum, assess the effectiveness of programs, and gather data necessary for planning revisions or developing programs.

The observation process should help to build a trusting relationship between training instructor and chairperson. By scheduling the visit ahead of time, the instructor will indicate that improvement of instruction is the primary objective of the process. It implies a professional and collegial process. Unscheduled observation, however, can make the instructor feel that someone is trying to "catch" him. Simply put, instructors are more receptive to observation when they know what is going to happen.

As observer, the chairperson or school dean gathers objective data and shares it with the teacher. The instructor is able to examine the observation data and verify the accuracy of the record. Thus, the trusting relationship is strengthened.

Building trust is an ongoing process. One of the best ways to improve a poor relationship is to conduct observations that demonstrate that the supervisory process can be objective, and that the goal is to improve performance. The observer must be aware of perceptual bias and perceptual isolation as he observes and records instructional activities. Perceptual bias is the distortion of perception resulting from the influence of the observer's personal attitudes and past experiences. Experiences that have been a significant part of an observer's life may color and distort his perception of interaction in class.

Previous experiences tend to limit and interpret what is seen, so that an observer has a biased view of the world. For example, an observer who, as a teacher, has been very successful using non-directive techniques of class control might perceive a very structured teacher as abusive. It might be said that prejudices to color views of the world in general, and impressions of a Defense Language Institute classroom lesson in particular.

What is seen is what one is prepared to see. This is called "perceptual readiness." "Perceptual isolation" is a limitation on sensory intake resulting from increased threat. Individuals react to a multitude of stimuli in a threatening situation by eliminating many of the stimuli and focusing on those that will protect them in the situation. When an observer feels threatened by the necessity to conduct an observation, there may be a tendency to look at just the positive elements of the lesson. This could happen if the observer has not developed a positive relationship with the instructor. A lack of observation skills might be another source of threat. The observer might feel insecure about collecting accurate data.

Perceptual isolation limits the observer's field of vision and decreases the quality and quantity of information collected. In order to neutralize the effect of both perceptual isolation and perceptual bias, the classroom observer is advised to focus on the production of an objective record of behavior. Careful attention to conducting a good pre-observation conference will help to establish a positive relationship with the instructor, thus reducing perceptual isolation. As the observer works to gain a clear understanding of the instructor's instructional plan, the use of active listening and positive conferencing skills will help to strengthen relationships.

Instructors should feel that they have had an opportunity to voice concerns, identify possible problem areas, and to provide a rationale for the lesson taught. A thorough understanding of the instructional plan helps the observer identify a focus that will provide the most appropriate information for analysis and assessment.

Although the primary purpose of the classroom observation is to generate an objective set of data about instruction, the observation should be conducted in a manner that exemplifies a supervision process based on mutual respect.

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Author

Ilsoon Shin, Instructor, Korean Department D, School of Korean Language, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: foreign language education.

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Multidisciplinary Perspectives
Conference Report
from
The Ninth Second Language Research Forum

Margaret van Daalen

The *1989 Second Language Research Forum* (SLRF) was held in Los Angeles, California, from 23 to 26 February 1989. The theme of *SLRF-1989*, **Multidisciplinary Perspectives**, was a fitting motto for the full and varied program. This year's conference offered four plenaries and over forty paper presentations, covering such issues as: input and interaction, morphology, role of instruction, neurocognitive issues, maturation and processing, classroom research, culture, affective factors, discourse, processing strategies, and complementation structures. In addition, a special session on Universal Grammar took place on Saturday and Sunday. In this report, I will summarize some of the more salient sessions I attended.

This year's conference was dedicated to *Dr. E. Hatch*, who created the field of discourse analysis in second language acquisition (SLA). According to her, "Language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on a conversation." In the plenary Hatch addressed the multidisciplinary perspectives in SLA and extensively discussed the areas of SLA research. Next Dr. E. Hatch presented the relation of neurobiology and language learning, as well as of cognition and language. Using the perspective of properties inherent in human mind, she also provided an overview of principles of Universal Grammar. The speaker drew a metaphor of teaching and learning and spoke of learning being an object to use. "Use it or lose it," "leave your brain on the shelf and it will turn into pudding." While discussing conversational analysis, she stated that coherence and referential markers are used as means of organization to make meanings clear. Dr. E. Hatch further discussed speech act theories and their contribution to notional-functional syllabuses. The speaker finished her address by emphasizing that we need to be multi-disciplinary to understand second language learning. Thus, the conference opened its insights into the multi-faceted areas of language acquisition.

Subsequently, *Bill Van Patten of University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, gave a presentation titled Attending to form and content in the input: An experiment in consciousness.* In this paper, Van Patten presented his findings of one experiment about learners' ability to attend simultaneously to content and form in the input. Learners of Spanish from four levels of study (202 total) were presented with an oral passage and asked to perform one of four tasks: attend to meaning only, attend to the meaning and to definite articles, attend to meaning and to verb morpheme, attend to meaning and to lexical item. Van Patten argued that the results suggested, on one hand, an ability to consciously process content and separate lexical items; and, on the other hand, a general inability to consciously process form and content. It appeared that forms which carry referential meaning are easier to notice than forms of grammmatical agreement. He discussed the role of consciousness in input processing and mentioned that intake does not take place unless learners consciously notice input. Also, Van Patten indicated that input has to be comprehended first before attention to form can be met. He concluded by saying that it is simplistic to assume that frequency in input leads to attention to form which subsequently leads to acquisition. He argued for different processing strategies and mentioned that the latency question was not addressed. In other words, how do we know when particular items come back to the learners' attention?

Susan M. Gass of Michigan State University presented a paper titled *Repairs, Incorporated Repairs and Second Language Development.* In this paper she explored the effects of interaction in nonnative speaker (NNS) discourse. She argued that not only did NNSs repair deviant forms in the speech of other NNSs, but that as a result of these repairs, standard language forms were incorporated into the speech of the NNS who made the initial error. Gass also pointed out that whenever the learner used the discourse to help modify or supplement linguistic knowledge, interaction contributed to second language development. Output modification was related to various aspects of the learner's grammar. The speaker stressed the importance of repetition and practical and external feedback. In her concluding remarks she stated that language must be experienced in a variety of ways and that through productive use, the knowledge of the language becomes firmly embedded for the learner. Her data indicated that providing students with negotiation and interaction tasks promoted language acquisition.

M. Sharwood Smith of University of Utrecht, Netherlands, addressed *Complementation Structures in Dutch-English Interlanguage,* and discussed various studies pertaining to interlanguage verb complementation. He discussed cross linguistic influence of native language (L1) on interlinguistic syntax of complements. From three types of complementation (infinitival, *I want her to go*; clausal, I *want* *that she goes*; gerund, *I want her going*), subjects appeared to prefer the infinitival complementation. The speaker mentioned the possible markedness of the gerund complementation since it does not exist in Dutch. Infinitival is generally more frequent in the input and this could be an explanation for the students prefering the infinitive complementation. According to the speaker students are faced with a repertoire problem (awareness of repertoire of general structures) as well as discovery and selection problems of complementation such as grammatical and syntactical restrictions placed on complement. This presentation was particularly interesting as it reaffirmed the consistent difficulties students encounter with underlying deep structures of the target language of which they are unaware.

Wolfgang Klein of Max Planck Institute for Psycho-linguistics, Netherlands, addressed U*tterance Structure* in a plenary. In his observation of informants, he included the following areas of investigation: expression of temporality, expression of space, utterance structure, lexical growth, and communicative skills. He mentioned that students' response to a question is related to foreground clauses (plot line) and background clauses (answering implicit questions). According to the speaker, questions impose constraint on topic-focus structures of foreground clauses. The "time" talked about goes to the "topic," the "event" goes to the "focus." He argued that because of this phenomena students often respond with different word order. Klein discussed phrasal constraints (statable in terms of VNP, etc), semantic constraints (statable in terms of inherent meaning of properties or role proportion) and pragmatic constraints (statable in terms of given, new, communicative importance, situational context, etc.). Example: *Who is in the garden*?........ *John is in the garden*, the focus is on *John*! Now compare *Where is John*?.......... *John is in the garden*, the focus is on the *garden*! The question predetermines what is going to be the focus and what is going to be the topic.

According to Klein students' utterances are deviant when there is a breakdown in the communicative system, when the shift is from topic to focus. He continued by explaining that when teachers ask explicitly. *What happened to you yesterday*? the answer can only be communicated over a whole series of utterances. The focus is on *what happened*, different from a narrative question: *What happened to Charlie in this movie*? The implications for teachers seem to call for awareness of the linguistic complexity of the types of questions asked and the function of focus in different questions, and how this relates to the level of difficulty.

Wolfgang Klein listed seven trivia of language acquisition (LA) in his talk about Universal Grammar:

1. LA is a difficult and cumbersome process which extends over many years. Hence, any acquisition theory starting with the relative speed and ease of this process is misguided.

2. LA is accumulative. Many structural characteristics of the second language can be acquired only after others have been acquired. The notion of an instantaneous process creates a number of unsolvable problems.

3. LA presupposes--in addition to specific cognitive capacities--a vast amount of input. Input is more than a trigger.

4. The input consists of sound waves and of parallel situation information. Without the latter, the former can't be processed. Hence, learnability theories which only consider "linguistic" input lead astray.

5. The target of the acquisition process is to interrelate sound and meaning. The learner does not focus on structures but on ways of expressing and decoding meanings.

6. Acquisition is the result of many interacting processes. Although our competence may be factorised into many modules, the acquisition process is not just within a module: it is the result of their interaction.

7. Although language may be a special component of the cognitive system, an acquisition theory which only operates with general cognitive principles would be clearly preferable. Klein emphasized that these basic characteristics of the acquisition process must be taken into account when discussing any theory of acquisition.

The speakers at the 1989 SLRF came from all over the world and contributed to an enjoyable, stimulating learning experience for everyone involved. While academia often value research over teaching, by attending these sessions I realized the importance of the interdependency of second language research and foreign language teaching. By implementing pertinent findings of the research related to our teaching, we will continue to strive towards optimal understanding of the multidisciplinary perspectives in the field of second language acquisition.

Author

Margaret van Daalen, Faculty Trainer, Faculty and Staff Development. Defense Language Institute. Interests: second language acquisition research, error analysis, and foreign language testing.

Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: References. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrate format for bibliographic entries.

Author

Jane C. Doe, Assistant Professor, Foreign
Language Education, University of America,
226 N. Madison St, Madison, WI 55306.
Specializations: foreign language acquisition,
curriculum studies..

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g. (Jones 1982:235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Footnotes should be used for substantive information only, and each footnote should be typed directly below the line to which it refers. They should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript, and each one should be set off from the text with a horizontal line above and a horizontal line below.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief*_ statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids, or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1 1/4 inch on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the new word processors (Xerox Star) which are now available in all Schools and Directorates. When the Xerox Star is used authors should submit both a floppy disc and a hard copy (paper) of the manuscript.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed., 1983) available from the American Psychological Association, 1200 17 Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036.

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their name on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3" x 5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

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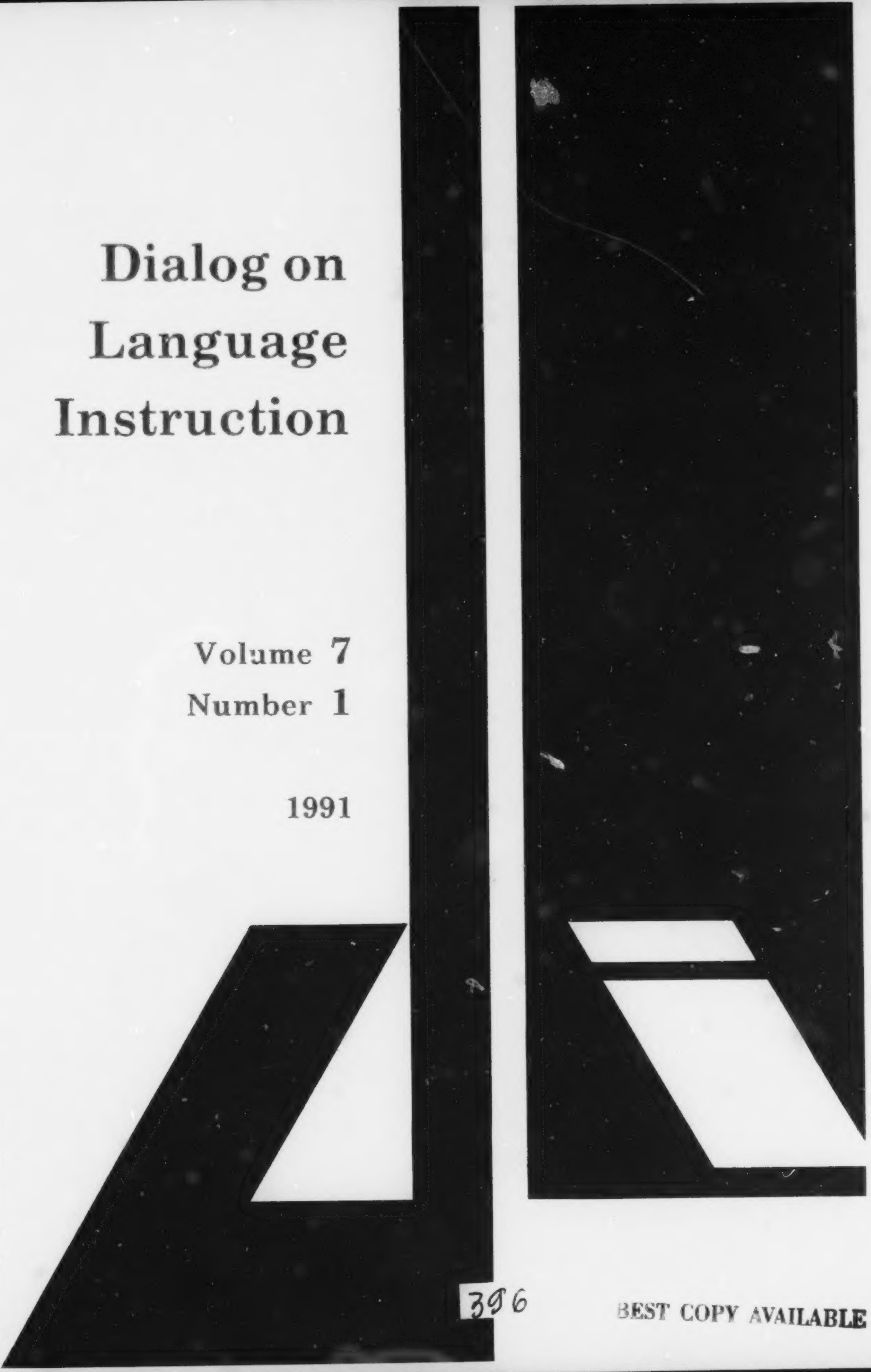

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CALLware* Design, Development, and Distribution

Walter Vladimir Tuman
American Graduate School of International Management

In Memory of Len Brisley

Technologically-enhanced language learning has been from its inception controversial. Beyond the brief period of unreserved enthusiasm for language laboratories associated with the audio lingual era, machines in support of language instruction have been subjected to close scrutiny resulting in frequent negative evaluations. Yet, bolstered by the proliferation of personal computers during this decade, CALL (computer-aided language learning) has made substantial inroads in secondary as well as higher education. This article examines the many facets of writing and publishing computer software for foreign-language instruction. It focuses on the practical issues relevant to those considering authoring courseware based on experience with the CALL software "Nomenclator."

The professional literature on CALL has burgeoned and the computer exercises described therein are extensively cataloged (Hope,1984, pp. 17-18; Underwood, 1984, pp. 52-61; Phillips, 1985; pp. 27-37; Wyatt, 1987, pp 87-90). Seven modes or types of instructional software are generally recognized, depicted below as the "form" of CALL. Juxtaposed are Cook's (1985, pp. 18-21) seven categories of information-processing for reading and writing, designated as

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*This compound has been coined as a convenient substitute for CALL + software.

"substance." The elements in these two categories can be joined in a variety of combinations, and the matrix can serve to classify existing programs, as well as to suggest future development.

Form

- Drill and Practice
- Information Retrieval
- Storage, Manipulation
- Simulation
- Problem Solving
- Utility gradebooks
- Tutorials
- Educational Games

Substance

- Letters
- Word Units
- Syntax
- Semantic Meaning
- Speech Functions
- Discourse
- Pragmatic Meaning

Such a scheme provides a convenient classification, but successful software development also necessitates the use of some programing vehicle to translate an instructional design into teaching materials. Holmes (1983, pp. 22-31) describes three available techniques: **authoring** or **template systems**, **freeform systems**, and **hybrid systems**.

This division would consider the common programing languages, Basic, Pascal, or C, exemplary of the freeform designation. They permit the greatest flexibility, yet require the most training and expertise to use. Less demanding of the software developer are templates such as Pilot (in many versions and dialects) and a large number of authoring "systems" that would qualify as hybrids. Achieving considerable popularity currently for MS DOS users are the following: McGraw-Hill Authoring System, MicroTICCIT, Quest, and TenCORE. For the Macintosh, the following enumeration represents the most widely distributed: Authorware Academic, Course Builder, and MacroMind/VideoWorks Director. The most recent programing environment from Carnegie Mellon University, the cT Language is specifically designed to be able to transfer a wide range of capabilities among IBM, Macintosh, and Unix-based workstations.

In opting for any one of these choices, a considerable investment of time may be necessary in order to master even the most direct and economical of systems. Consequently, personal experience suggests the advantages of collaboration. This model teams up a subject matter expert (teacher or foreign language methodologist, in this instance) with a software engineer to optimize respective skills and talents while taking advantage of the most flexible programing styles. However, such collaborative authoring may soon become obsolete as rapidly changing programing procedures become more accessible to the nonspecialist.

Ultimately, the mediation of artificial intelligence and expert systems may aid in the development process, thus streamlining authoring and obviating ventures in joint authorship (Sussex,1988, pp. 6-10).

Having outlined the content and development of CALLware, the specification of quality standards, while more challenging, nevertheless demands articulation. Many initial attempts at CALL were disastrous, damaging the public image of instructional software and retarding the perception of development as a rigorous and genuinely academic pursuit. Large numbers of early prototypes were marketed prematurely, thus causing frustration as they crashed due to technical problems - or were unacceptable on pedagogical grounds.

For instance, a pioneer program from Synergistic Software, "The Linguist" would completely freeze up under certain conditions when the student user was unfortunate enough to produce unrecognizable (by the computer) character strings. Baffling documentation and serious problems with ASCII text importation were also characteristic of a number of programs, among them RDA's "Mark-Up" for teaching punctuation skills. Another inadequacy inherent in early CALL software relates to the evolution of hardware. For instance, "The Russian Disk" from COMpress failed to work consistently on newer PC's since the clock speed of the original 8088 machines was modified in later models.

The current generation of software is much more sophisticated and authors tend to adhere to higher standards. Consequently, those considering development must be sensitive to a multiplicity of both instructional and technical criteria to assure an effective product.

The following listing, often consulted during "Nomenclator's" design and development stages, includes diverse quality-control criteria abstracted and condensed from a number of sources (Adler & Troutman, 1986, pp. 2-16; Kosel, 1979; Otte, 1979, pp. 30-31; Maryland State Board of Education, 1982).

Evaluation Criteria

1. Content free of racial, ethnic, sexual, and other stereotypes.
2. Goals and objectives are explicit and stated.
3. Level of difficulty is appropriate for target users.
4. Graphics and sound used for appropriate instructional reasons and can be user-controlled.
5. Color utilized for maximum effect and avoids common color blindness problems.

6. Use of package is motivational.
7. Feedback is effectively employed and both confirmation and correction are appropriate.
8. Lock-step learning sequences are avoided, thereby accommodating individualization and providing for student control of timed exercises.
9. Program mechanics are lean, avoiding recurrent logos and introductory messages which detract from teaching objectives.
10. Failure is not rewarded by the appearance of clever graphics.
11. Support materials are comprehensive and effective and match user needs and abilities to interpret.
12. Users can enter, operate, and exit program easily and independently.
13. Program uses relevant computer capabilities appropriately.
14. Program is reliable in normal use and free from technical and programing errors.
15. All screens are straightforward and uncluttered.
16. Special key information is explicit.
17. General structure of entire package is consistent and logical.
18. Interface with peripherals (printers, recorders, etc.) has been testedand proved.
19. Record keeping is secure from general student access.

Outfitted with a blueprint of software possibilities, appropriate development tools, and a commitment to quality, the prospective developer must also be sensitive to the role of the proposed CALL activity within the contemporary methodological climate. Prevailing opinions among many educational linguists link the application of drill and practice with a primitive behaviorism. This attitude often extends into the perception of the computer as a purveyor of anti-humanistic learning.

Underwood's association of "communicative activities" with CALL, stressing implicit grammar, highlighting creative language generation, and deemphasizing error correction is especially significant in this context. Deriving his observations from a language-acquisition rather than learning model, he states definitively that in "communicative CALL... there will be no drill" (1984, p. 52). Paradoxically, though, in 1983 Harris estimated that of approximately 100 microcomputer programs developed for the second-language classroom about 90 percent fall into the drill and practice category. Examining the current software marketplace, this characterization remains essentially unchanged despite a substantial increase in the availability of courseware. Ahmad et al. (1985, p. 103) suggest an explanation for such a distribution of courseware types: "One barrier to the use of the computer in communicatively based exercises is the fact that it is easier to program the computer as a binary machine; this often results in an uncompromising right/wrong approach."

Clearly, then, the courseware developer must be cognizant of the limitations imposed by drill and practice balanced against the resources and sophisticated programing demanded of genuine "communicative CALL." Whereas proponents of an extreme communicativist position categorically reject drill and practice, many supporters of computer-aided instruction are quite in favor of such activities. For instance, Weyh and Crook (1988, pp. 32-33) address the problem of a student's having familiarity with the material but not complete control: "'True mastery requires a disciplined approach to problem-solving as well as enormous amounts of practice."

Garson (1987, p. 21) points out that, "the utility of software is contingent on the audience. Drill programs may be a poor choice for a research-methods course where analytic software might be more appropriate; yet for foreign language instruction, drill software may be quite effective." Frommer's (1987, p. 46) comment succinctly summarizes the status of reinforcing computer-aided drills, "Although it has become fashionable to criticize drill and practice software, such criticism ignores the more sophisticated versions of this type of software and disregards the importance of drill in language learning."

Upon accepting the utility of drill as a component of language instruction, the aspiring developer must focus on a clearly defined area of language instruction. To illustrate, the selection of the topic of vocabulary for "Nomenclator" derives from a firm conviction that a definite lexical corpus must be instantly available to the speaker/learner to constitute genuine communication. Even at the novice and intermediate levels of proficiency (ACTFL Guidelines), communicative competence entails a measure of automaticity and accuracy in productive and receptive vocabulary skills. The fundamental design of "Nomenclator" reflects the view that vocabulary control plays a critical role in the mastery of a foreign language, a skill that has been a neglected aspect of instruction. Krashen (1982, p. 80) notes that "Language teachers had been told to restrict introduction of new vocabulary in order to focus on syntax. Now we are saying that vocabulary learning will actually contribute to the acquisition of syntax."

Studies supporting computer utilization for the presentation and reinforcement of vocabulary are numerous, and several pilot programs have demonstrated the utility of various lexical CALL projects (Burling, Holmes, 1980; Lessard, 1986; Sagvall, 1976; Scanlan, 1976). Personal experience with implementing the "Boris" Russian tutorial program (Tuman, 1983) substantiated the effectiveness of lexical and morphological exercises, clearly indicating that students readily accept this type of drill. Recent research corroborating the effectiveness of flash card techniques (Kunst, 1987; Salisbury, 1988) as well as investigations supporting computer-delivered mnemonic aids (Feldt, 1988) further provide a psycholinguistic and pedagogical foundation for the structure and features of "Nomenclator."

"Nomenclator" addresses the continuing instructional requirement for a simple and flexible tool to help learners in reinforcing vocabulary and inflection. With communicative proficiency as an expressed instructional goal, certain activities, peripheral to genuinely creative and functional language use, may be provided in the interests of efficiency. Such practice becomes more relevant with highly inflected languages having few cognates, but a case can be made for inclusion of such practice in all teaching contexts. Jahn and Wieser (1989, p. 20) comment on the use of computer-delivered vocabulary and inflection practice for Russian:

> ...'pre-proficiency' activities (such as vocabulary presentation and drill or the mastery of inflectional patterns) can be dealt with in class with a commensurate decrease in the time available for proficiency training proper, or the preliminary activities can be more or less neglected in class with a commensurate increase in class time available for proficiency training. In the latter case one must anticipate the attendant risks of, at worst, increased student attrition or, at best, diminished productivity resulting from inadequate student preparation.

"Nomenclator" was designed primarily as a complement to traditional classroom instruction, facilitating match-up with any given textbook by allowing a teacher or student to develop special-purpose vocabulary lists. The instructor may also use the program as a component of systematic proficiency evaluation to assign placement and track student progress. Additionally, as a stand-alone, computer-aided vocabulary learning system, it could be used advantageously by a recreational traveler or businessman wishing a review of conversational formulas, or a scholar requiring proficiency within a specialized lexicon.

Integrated large scale CALL programs have been the subject of investigations at numbers of colleges and universities for approximately two decades. Generally, three features characterize these programs: dependence on single manufacturer mainframe computer hardware; inability to be modified or manipulated; linkage to some specific text or learning material. Any one of these characteristics can be a significant deterrent for adoption of a CALL program as a supplement to a given foreign-language curriculum.

"Nomenclator" was designed as a response to these deficiencies. Intended for the IBM/PC and compatibles, it provides the language instructor with a simplified yet flexible template to develop lexicons of word-equivalent pairs. Currently, it supports all Western European languages, and a high resolution Russian version is available for use with an IBM enhanced graphics adapter (EGA board). Incorporating the tutorial technique of "flash cards," "Nomenclator" can also provide practice in inflection. The program's nucleus is a data base shell that can accommodate a lexicon of 2000-3000 items with their equivalents on a single floppy disk. Program options from the MAIN MENU, as shown in Figure 1, include "Create" to develop a new Lexicon or Lesson; "Edit" for modifying existing ones; "Review" to amplify each item within a lesson with grammatical notes, example sentences, and mnemonics; and "Test" to provide a lesson drill in game format.

Standard utility options include "Select" to select a Lexicon or Lesson for study; "Print" for allowing written quiz output; Screen "Color" to select background, foreground, and underline colors; "Delete"; "Rename"; and "New File List."

Each item-equivalent (T = Target and E = Equivalent) in the data base may be supplemented by four optional fields, as shown in Figure 2.

The "Review" function is provided for student use and consists of "TS" (Target Sentence) and "ES" (Equivalent Sentence); "C" (Comments), which contains pertinent grammatical information; and Mn (Mnemonic) which supplies various key-word associations to help vocabulary retention.

Since many words in a given language can have multiple equivalents, the "baggage" field (TB and EB) serves to clarify items in the test drill. For instance, in Figure 2, *die Bank* (in Park), "the bench in the park" becomes differentiated from the German homograph, *die Bank* (the bank). Such a hint directs the student to select the single equivalent that "Nomenclator" expects as correct. Thus, problems of polysemy are reduced as well as the frustrations that result when factually correct responses are judged incorrect by insensitive software.

The "Nomenclator" test is a drill that requires the student to type the correct equivalent of an item within a pre-set timeframe. An asterisk moves across the screen, from left to right, until an equivalent is supplied or time runs out. Should the student be unable to provide an equivalent, depressing a function key results in the display of the required form. A score indicating the number correct (of the total items within a given lesson) appears unobtrusively on the test screen throughout the test.

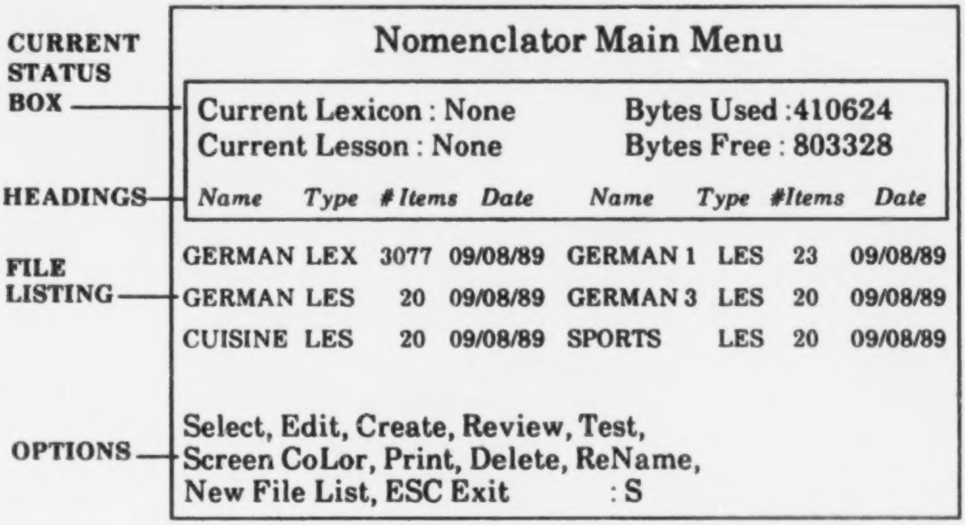
This prototypical software has been introduced as a course supplement at the undergraduate level in the Louisiana State University Foreign Language Laboratory. It has been made available to hundreds of beginning students of Russian, Latin, and French on a strictly voluntary basis for the last four semesters. Initial impressions at LSU, corroborated by the experience of faculty at several other test sites, indicate that vocabulary retention has been dramatically increased among those students who opt to use the program. Interviews with student users of "Nomenclator" indicate that computerized vocabulary drills are perceived by students as a logical complement to language laboratory attendance. It appears that the vocabulary routinely introduced in the classroom becomes more thoroughly assimilated when reinforced with the whole range of "Nomenclator" activities.

Consequently, it can be reported that "Nomenclator" is considered an unqualified local success. Distribution of the program on a larger scale according to the options outlined in Seiden continues to be pursued. However, designer and programmer have agreed that neither self-publishing nor distribution through a minor special interest vendor would suit their purpose. As vocabularies are developed and expanded to match major texts, "Nomenclator" may well join the ranks of public domain software that becomes available through a large number of computer networks.

Software publication and distribution continues to arouse interest within the university community both as an academic and an entrepreneurial question. Not only does it have implications in terms of potential income for developers, but it can also have significant impact on one's career in the promotion and tenure process. Publication in the traditional sense of the word when applied to sponsored authorship and dissemination of educational materials involves the principal participation of at least two parties: author and publisher. The roles of teachers, and especially students, certainly have an effect in the process, but only tangentially.

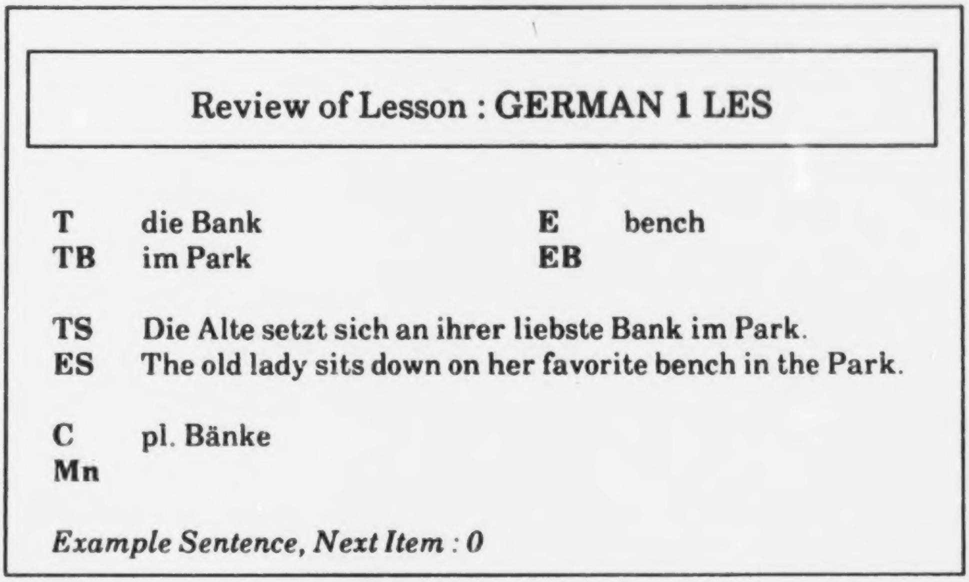
From an academic publisher's perspective, the decision to move into software publishing represents substantial risk. Despite the numerous and visible successes in business (spreadsheets) and the growing popularity of games ("Where in the World is Carmen Sandiego?"), instructional software of all types continues to lack impetus. This is especially true of the entire range of CALLware. A

Figure 1



```
                 Nomenclator Main Menu

 Current Lexicon : None           Bytes Used :410624
 Current Lesson : None            Bytes Free : 803328

 Name     Type  #Items  Date      Name      Type  #Items  Date

GERMAN   LEX   3077  09/08/89   GERMAN 1  LES    23   09/08/89
GERMAN   LES     20  09/08/89   GERMAN 3  LES    20   09/08/89
CUISINE  LES     20  09/08/89   SPORTS    LES    20   09/08/89

Select, Edit, Create, Review, Test,
Screen CoLor, Print, Delete, ReName,
New File List, ESC Exit          : S
```

Figure 2



```
          Review of Lesson : GERMAN 1 LES

T     die Bank                        E     bench
TB    im Park                         EB

TS    Die Alte setzt sich an ihrer liebste Bank im Park.
ES    The old lady sits down on her favorite bench in the Park.

C     pl. Bänke
Mn

Example Sentence, Next Item : 0
```

number of factors combine to explain the sluggish state of CAI in general and CALL in particular. Generations of editors and technical production staff dedicated to the management of the written word have yet to overcome a basic distrust of the electronic storage, distribution and marketing of nonprint media. The appearance of the floppy disk as an alternative to the printed page disturbs the very ethos of the traditional publishing community. For this generally staid group, the introduction of software as a viable instructional entity conjures up a litany of thorny questions relating to hardware incompatibility, obsolescence of computer materials and machinery, and defective-disk replacement. Topping the totem of caveats looms the subject of unauthorized disk duplication. Thus the introduction of a relatively untried commodity as a quasi text/workbook subject to considerable technological mutability is met with reservation by those academic publishers with a trained eye on the bottom line. Since CALLware represents a minor subspecies in a limited market, ancillary foreign language instructional materials nevertheless demand marketing, and therefore the bottom line appears ever more distinct.

Above and beyond the technical problems inherent in supporting software production, Priesmeyer (1988, p. 32) identifies integrating text production with complementary software as the single most tasking problem for the academic publisher. From the average editor's desk the development of software closely resembles the efforts of textbook authors. In fact, media enhanced materials (computer, videodisc, CD-ROM, etc.) require radically new development models. The processes that involve timing, development, pre-production, and production stages are fundamentally dissimilar. Our experience with developing and presenting "Nomenclator" to publishers emphatically reinforces these observations. Until publishers become aware of the special design and development plans required for software projects, interactions between developer and sponsor will remain undefined and strained.

Another difficulty arises when a developer produces stand-alone software with a minimal, if any, tie-in to a particular textbook. Since such a product is identified by a publisher as unfamiliar, extreme caution is exercised, justifiably, before committing costly marketing support to this innovation. Especially since materials can be easily duplicated by a competitor, software can readily appear suspect since it does not appear to "fit the product line" of an academic publishing house. Ultimately, market pressures may well cause publishers to tie in software as they recognize the potential of computerware"bundled" with texts. Marketing experts predict that professors themselves will eventually demand computer-related learning aids, thereby raising the motivation of publishers in that direction (DeLoughry, 1988, p. 11).

Convincing a publisher of the benefits of bringing computer software into a new market may also be expedited by various forms of corporate sponsorship to articulate software needs and support development (Graves, 1987, p. 60). For instance, at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill the equipment donated by IBM made possible the development effort. Subsequently their mediation and forceful negotiation were instrumental in influencing Harcourt Brace Jovanovich to agree to publishing the academic software developed. In addition to major institutional support, the advocacy of champions within publishing houses should not be overlooked. The interplay of various human factors at a publishing house to establish a positive profile for the individual developer can also significantly affect the fate of a project (Moberg, 1988, p. 31).

A number of issues do complicate software development both from the academic publisher's viewpoint and from the academician's perspective. The problem of unauthorized duplication of software is indeed vexing and a distinct counterbalance to the significant investment required for publishers to support instructional computer products. Widespread piracy in the non-school markets will probably continue, but as deep academic discounts (75 percent) become more generally available, illegal copying of instructional software will most likely decrease in the schools and universities (DeLoughry, 1987, p. 31). Conceivably the concept of giveaway software may become popularized, analogous to the experience of the paperback book. Floppy disks are considerably less expensive and more dense as a storage medium than are printed materials.

Another subject that complicates distribution of a finished product involves the thorny issue of profit sharing by a faculty member and the university sponsoring the research and development. Widely varying arrangements are reported, typified by the following examples.

At Harvard University Medical School faculty members have negotiated a position that assures ownership of any developed software to the author. The administration at the State University of New York at Stony Brook views software as literature and leaves the copyright to the faculty member who wrote the program. Stanford University defines software as a hybrid of academic journal article and invention, retaining ownership of patents by the administration, yet sharing royalties with the developer. (Gerard, 1987, p. 64). Additionally, some software of excellent quality is finding a significant niche for distribution through telecommunications networks. Known as "share ware," such materials are available gratis or at a fraction of the cost of commercially published products.

In view of such varying options, the value of software developed by a faculty member to a given university may represent a significant generation of profits as well as the prominence achieved by association of a particularly successful computer application with a given university. Ironically though, as pointed out by Cartwright and Cartwright (1987, p. 14), software development has been the "kiss of death" for numbers of professors who relied heavily on computer programs as a means of attaining tenure and promotion. Generally, administrations look more favorably on software development that results in discipline specific products relevant to the subject area of specialization of the faculty member. A most encouraging development has occurred at Pennsylvania State University, where the faculty senate has included explicit reference to software development as a component worthy of inclusion in a candidate's dossier when applying for tenure and promotion (Turner, 1987, p. 20).

Objective evaluation of software is an extremely complex process further obscured when its "scholarly" character is debated. Thus, EDUCOM, a consortium of colleges and universities interested in computing, has repeatedly failed to devise software evaluation standards that integrate the concept of scholarship. Perhaps such an amalgam is misconceived. Teaching and scholarship are traditionally separated when reviewing an academic's contributions to the university. Software is clearly relevant to the former component, yet just as clearly its design and development involves as much hard work, internalization and synthesis of materials as a theoretical monograph. Even more important is the recognition that computer-delivered materials development is an extremely demanding and rigorous undertaking, testing one's pedagogical mettle and intuition in many subtle ways that have yet to be described. Software, furthermore, may significantly affect many more individuals than the majority of theoretical work touches. In the specific case of CALLware, unique algorithms developed and utilized in a particular design can be carried into future applications influencing many generations of language learners.

As previously mentioned, the software arena includes not only the developer and publisher but also the teacher and student. It is from within this substantial forum that the need for software may gain a critical mass. The most enthusiastic acceptance of "Nomenclator" has come from student users, many of whom have developed their own vocabularies and semantic sets. They are the least computer-wary and pragmatic, motivated to progress through various exercises because they realize that computer drill is effective. Our experience further indicates that as instructors realize that overall student proficiency increases with no additional classroom contact, computer lab or extramural practice is worthy of support. Furthermore, the era of the hand-held computer is upon us and memory-aiding drills and tutorials can accompany us wherever we travel in our daily routines.

To advocate drill and practice with a panacean vision reminiscent of audiolingual prescription is totally misguided. However, repetition in various formats and conditions might well represent a small but important component of the communicative language learning experience that can be enhanced and enlivened by computer mediation. The development of carefully crafted CALLware is justified for developers, publishers, and sponsoring institutions. To utilize the computer's abilities as a tireless, convenient, flexible, and unblaming tutor is to optimize available technology and to serve the foreign language learner.

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Author

Walter Vladimir Tuman, Associate Professor, Department of Modern Languages, American Graduate School of International Management, Glendale, Arizona 85306. Specializations: Russian applied linguistics, educational linguistics, computer-aided language learning.

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Theories of Second Language Acquisition and of Physics; Pedagogical Implications

Michel Nicola
Defense Language Institute

The Krashen-McLaughlin debate is viewed from the standpoint of physics. It is found that critiques of Krashen's theory are nearly identical to those that have been made in physical theory and have resulted in the development of physical theory to its present state. A similar development in the SLA field cannot be ruled out. The relevance of this to the classroom, and of the classroom to it, are explored. Not only are theoretical critiques the same in the two fields, but so also are the relations between theory and practice.

A great deal of research exists in the area of second language acquisition (SLA), but few theoretical schemes to bring unity and order into the field. Probably the most comprehensive theory attempted is that of Stephen Krashen. But one of his critics (Gregg, 1984, p. 79) finds that the attempt has thoroughly failed, and that after the audiolingual theory we are left in "something of a vacuum insofar as theory is concerned." Another critic (McLaughlin, 1978, 1980, 1983, 1987), in response to difficulties he perceives with the operational meanings of Krashen's two basic terms, "conscious" and "unconscious," proposes with his co-workers an alternative model based on a human information processing perspective. This Krashen-McLaughlin debate is now more than 10 years old and shows no sign of being resolved.

The major points of contention are not peculiar to the SLA field but pertain to any theory in any field. In the following we look at this debate from the standpoint of physics, a field in which a more mature theory exists. The highlights of Krashen's theory and its critiques, and of the McLaughlin model, are first reviewed and compared with critiques of the theory of motion. The critiques are strikingly similar in the two fields. Their consequences in physics are known and may provide valuable insights into the present and future states of SLA theory. The significance and importance of this to the language teacher are then discussed.

Krashen's Theory and Its Critiques

Krashen's theory (1981, 1982, 1985) consists of his five hypotheses:

> 1. The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis states: Knowledge of a second language develops in two ways: unconscious acquisition and conscious learning. The former focuses on content; the latter stresses form and is done through instruction that leans heavily on drills and error correction. These two ways are independent; learning does not become acquisition. Only comprehensible input (No. 3, below) can lead to acquisition.
>
> 2. The Monitor Hypothesis states: Learning does not contribute to fluency. Its function is as an editor or monitor. A consciously known rule helps the learner edit his activity in the language. Three conditions are met when monitoring occurs: Time is available; focus is on form, not content, and the rule is known. The time requirement has later been dropped (Krashen, 1985, p. 2 and Footnote 4, pp. 22-23.)
>
> 3. The Input Hypothesis states: Acqusition results from comprehending input a little above the level of competence of the learner (i + 1); speaking emerges after a certain amount of comprehension; the best input is sequenced not by grammar but for effective communication.
>
> 4. The Natural Order Hypothesis states: Language rules are acquired in a specific order. Drilling them into the learner in any other order, no matter how logical it may seem, is futile.
>
> 5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis states: Acquisition occurs best when the affective filter is low, i.e., when the learner is in a state of low anxiety and high self-confidence. Otherwise the input, even though it might be comprehensible, may bypass the learner's "language acquisition device."

Critics of Krashen's theory have raised three main points:

1. The theory contains undefined or ill-defined terms and hence lacks empirical content and verifiability. McLaughlin (1978) says that no experimental procedure exists to validate the distinction between conscious and unconscious processes. Hence, to tell whether subjects are operating "by rule" or "by feel" one must rely on subjective, introspective reports, which are woefully inadequate. Gregg (1984) says that the hypothesis that learning does not become acquisition is a trival one if by learning is meant a *state* (of knowing the rules, of being aware of them and being able to talk about them), and if by acquisition is meant a *process*, for a state obviously does not become a process.

2. Krashen's theory lacks empirical motivation and consistency with experience. McLaughlin rejects the learning/acquisition hypothesis because it does not seem to square with experience: "One consciously and deliberately learns the rudiments and then learns more patterns as performance improves." (1987, pp. 326-27) Gregg says that the opposite hypothesis is intuitively obvious, and Krashen must disprove it. He also finds that there is not sufficient empirical evidence to warrant introducing the affective filter and natural order hypotheses.

3. The theory lacks explanatory power. It does not, for example, explain how comprehensible input leads to acquisition.

Gregg does not offer any alternative hypotheses, but McLaughlin and coworkers (1983) propose to distinguish between controlled and automatic processes–instead of the conscious/unconscious distinction. They view second language learning as human information processing, a perspective that derives from contemporary cognitive psychology. Learning is regulated by controlled processes, and complex skills become automatic only after the earlier use of controlled processes. Once automatic processes are set up, controlled processes are free to be allocated to higher levels of processing. This alternative distinction is based on behavioral acts, not inner states of consciousness (McLaughlin, 1978, p. 318).

In Krashen's answer to McLaughlin (1979) he agrees that at present there is no "physiological measure that shows an acquisition/learning difference" (p. 152), but insists that this in no way weakens the hypothesis or suggests that the distinction is not real. Psychologists regularly posit abstract hypotheses and then see if they predict measurable phenomena.

It is clear that the nature of theory is the real issue in the entire debate. The three points of dispute are obviously relevant to any theory in any field. What does physics have to say about them?

Critiques in Physics and in SLA

Physical theory dates back to antiquity, and one of its main subjects is motion. In Aristotle's thinking (Ross ed. 1930, vol. 2; Toulmin, 1961, pp. 46-53) every type of body has its natural place, and stays at rest there unless it is forced to move. Heavy bodies, e.g., belong at the lowest points on earth, and if initially found there, will not move without a mover. A heavy body initially not at the lowest point will get there unless it is constrained, and with a speed proportional to its weight. But heavenly bodies, like the moon and planets, are different; their nature is to move in particular ways all the time, without a mover.

This view dominated physical thought until the Renaissance, when Galileo started a line of thinking that culminated in Newton's theory in the 17th century (Newton, Thayer and Randall, eds., 1953; Toulmin, 1961, chaps. 3 and 4). This new theory contradicts both tenets of Aristotle's theory. First, the natural state of a body is not rest but motion in a straight line (with speed that may be zero). If there is no force on such a body, it will stay forever in its initial state. Force is not needed to get it moving; what force does is change its state by altering either its speed or direction of motion. Second, all motion, in the heavens as well as on earth, obeys the same laws. For this to be possible it was necessary to hypothesize that a body can exert a force on another without contact between the two. Gravity was such an "action at a distance" force.

The motion of the moon around the earth provides an illustration of the difference between the two theories. In the Aristotelian view it is taken as a primary fact of experience; it is in the nature of the moon to be moving in a circle. In the Newtonian view, on the other hand, the primary nature of the moon, as of any other body anywhere, is to be moving uniformly in a straight line, but the earth keeps tugging at it with the force of gravity and this keeps it in its circular orbit. This is somewhat like a body whirled at the end of a string, except that the action here is through a string that is in contact with the body while the earth acts on the moon at a distance. According to this view, projectile motion on earth, the motion of the moon around the earth and of the planets around the sun all followed the same laws of motion and gravity. From this Newton demonstrated the possibility of artificial satellites about 270 years before the first one was launched.

We can already see that the second and third criticisms of Krashen's theory listed above could be (and at times were) leveled by

Aristotelians against the Galileo/Newton theory. The concept of a body moving forever in a straight line certainly does not correspond to experience. Newton could be told, as Gregg told Krashen, that the opposite, Aristotelian concept of a body at rest in its natural place is intuitively obvious, and that he must disprove it. Moreover, Newton does not explain how gravity works any more than Krashen explains how comprehensible input results in acquisition. Gravitational theory lacks explanatory power.

Yet for 200 years it scored one success after another. It predicted in accurate detail the motions of the planets and all sorts of motion on earth.

Then, toward the end of the 19th century, Ernst Mach (1961 ed., p. 302) found Newton's laws riddled with logical problems. For example, after defining force as an "action executed upon a body in order to change its state, either of rest or motion in a right (straight) line, Newton goes on to state it as a law of nature (the famous Second Law of Motion) that 'the change of motion is proportional to the force impressed' " (Thayer and Randall, eds., p. 13). If force is *defined.* as whatever changes the natural state of a body, then a law stating that a force changes the natural state of a body ought to be tautological. Perhaps even worse than this is Newton's first law, which states that every body perseveres in its state of rest or uniform motion in a straight line except when a force is impressed on it. An important 20th century physicist (Eddington, 1968, p. 124) notes that every time a deviation from this law is observed, a new force is invented to account for it. This made him restate the law as "Everybody perseveres in its state of rest or uniform motion in a straight line except in so far as it does not."

Clearly, these very flaws have all been discovered by Gregg and McLaughlin in Krashen's theory.

What happened next in physics? Mach (pp. 298-304) reformulated Newton's theory, thus separating the statements that were definitions from those that were empirical propositions; the two kinds were hopelessly entangled in Newton's original formulation. Having done that, he wrote (pp. 304-5), less in triumph than in apology for Newton's shortcomings: "He that has acquired a new point of view naturally cannot possess it so securely from the beginning as those who receive it unlaboriously from him."

He also did a critique of Newton's ideas of space and time. Newton's basic concept of a free body moving uniformly requires a space that "remains always similar and immovable," and a time that "flows equably without reference to anything external." Mach's critiques were taken up by Albert Einstein, who realized that even though these ideas of space and time were intuitively clear and deeply entrenched in our minds, they nevertheless mean nothing, for we have no *operational* definitions of them. There is no experimental procedure, possible at least in principle, that can tell us what "equably" flowing time and "immovable" space *mean*. He explored possible ways to put such operational meanings in these terms, and that was the start of the intellectual adventure that led him to the theory of relativity (1961 edition), a theory that represents a revolution in physical thought as far-reaching as the Galileo/Newton revolution.

It is clear that McLaughlin's critique of Krashen's conscious/unconscious distinction is the same as the Mach/Einstein critique of Newton's space and time. Yet it did not lead him to the same path. It could not have done that, for the historical situation here is different; history had not yet pronounced its judgment on Krashen's theory–the way it had on Newton's–by the time it got down to Mach and Einstein.

Implications for SLA Theory

It appears from the above that the importance of the McLaughlin/Gregg critiques lies not in the conclusions that have been drawn from them but mainly in the very fact that they have been made. This is important if SLA theory is to develop and mature. The critiques have been put forward according to generally recognized rules about what constitutes successful theories and cannot be ignored.

Nevertheless, if physics is any guide, we see that these critiques, contrary to the opinions of their promulgators, are not necessarily fatal to Krashen's theory. The very same critiques were not fatal to physical theory. On the contrary, they propelled it to new heights.

One is tempted to argue that by wholesale rejection of the theory the critics are passing up a valuable opportunity to accomplish for SLA theory what Mach and Einstein accomplished for physics. But this would be premature. We cannot at present hold the same prospects for Krashen's theory as were realized by Newton's, for the simple reason that it has not yet stood the test of time. It is impossible to tell whether, and for how long, Krashen's theory will continue to be influential in research and classroom practice. The initial successes of a theoretical attempt are no guarantee of its ultimate acceptance. In retrospect it appears that Newton's theory did so well because the flaws that Mach discovered in it were not in its actual content but only in its *formulation*. Mach's challenge showed that the theory was basically sound, revealed its limitations, and pointed the way to overcoming them. Whether the critiques of Krashen's theory will show that it is sound or unsound remains to be seen.

Pedagogical Implications

What difference does all this make for us classroom teachers?

The two sides have different recommendations for us. Krashen (1982, p. 4) urges intensive interactions between theory and the classroom. McLaughlin (1987, p. 57) and Gregg (1984, p. 94) do not object to following Krashen's recommendations for teaching and even support them. But they caution against adopting his or any SLA theory, since none has at present anything reliable to offer. Thus, according to Gregg and McLaughlin, we are to continue to abandon old methods based on real (but wrong) theories for new methods based on no real theory but only on experience and intuition.

There is a peculiar kind of practical wisdom in this. One teaches without any theory of language acquisition as one lives without any philosophy of life or general view of the world. Immediate personal experience and intuition and those of others are the most real, most persuasive, and most reliable guide. One may even function more effectively on a day-to-day basis by shutting out elaborate philosophies and controversial theories.

Yet it is precisely immediate practical experience that should be distrusted. Is it not just such experience that presents to us, for example, the notion that the earth is fixed and flat and the sun is a disk that moves in the sky? We need SLA theory for the same reason that we need the scientists' insights into the nature of the physical world. While it is possible to live by immediate experience alone, it is not possible to live intelligently or to contribute to the making of discoveries. (Would America have been discovered without the realization that the earth was round?) Many language teachers are concerned not only about day-to-day classroom business but also about insights into the language acquisition process.

It will be protested that the SLA situation is in no way comparable to that in the hard physical sciences because in the latter there are reliable theories supported by experiment, while in SLA there are mainly speculations. SLA theorists are not even agreed about what constitutes experimental support. For example, Krashen (1982, pp. 12-14) cites the morpheme studies as evidence for the Natural Order hypothesis, but McLaughlin does not put much faith in them (1987, pp. 33-35; 1978, pp. 327-28). In general, what Krashen considers as experimental evidence, McLaughlin (1978, p. 325) considers as merely one way among many of viewing the facts–and not the best at that. This being the case, wouldn't we do well not to bother about SLA research, and just fall back on our personal experience?

The argument rests on misunderstandings of the situation in the "hard" sciences, and of the nature of theory in general. First, no science, no matter how hard, has sprung full grown from the forehead of Zeus. Every major science started out as a set of unsupported speculations. Chemistry was once alchemy; astronomy, astrology. Historians and philosophers of science do not regard these as prescientific stages of ignorance and superstition but as natural periods of childhood common to many disciplines (Toulmin, 1961, pp. 69-70; Cassirer, 1944, p. 208). A science, no less than a child, becomes more reliable as it matures, and questions regarding precisely what constitutes experimental support become clarified as part of the maturation process. Such clarifications are not preconditions of research but parts of the research task itself.

Second, there have traditionally been two extreme positions regarding the cognitive status of theories: the descriptive and the instrumentalist (Nagel, 1961, pp. 106-152). The first regards theory as a summary of facts, and as being true or false depending on whether it fits the experimental facts. The second regards theory as being an instrument of inquiry, of organizing experience and ordering experimental laws. According to it, no theory is true or false, but some theories are better than others as instruments for guiding research.

Various positions are possible between these two extremes and are known as realist views. Both Krashen and McLaughlin appear to hold such realist positions, but the former stands close to the instrumentalist end and the latter to the descriptive end. This, in a nutshell, is the cause of the entire controversy between the two and the reason for their different recommendations to practitioners. From the descriptive end, one does not attempt to apply a theory before one has rigorously tested it empirically, while from the instrumentalist end, a theory appears valuable as a guide to practice as well as research even if it has not been fully tested.

The situation in the hard sciences is not *essentially* different from that in SLA; the difference is only in the degree of development of the two fields. We would not be justified in giving up on SLA theoretical effort on that ground.

Why should Krashen's admittedly useful prescriptions about teaching be divorced from his theory? Because in the opinion of his critics he *has* no real theory. McLaughlin has pointed out that Krashen's main teaching prescription, e.g., is by comprehensible input, yet he has not defined what he means by comprehensible input (1987, p. 56, No.4). Lack of such a definition makes it easy to call comprehensible input anything that succeeds in the classroom. This would make the Input Hypothesis an empty statement.

The situation is similar to what happened in the field of physics. In the 200 years between Newton's laws–until Mach showed that the explicit statements of these laws were vacuous. The way to discover their implicit empirical content was to ask what one *actually does* when one applied them. Mach's accomplishment consisted of making such implicit contents explicit.

Now, is the input hypothesis necesssarily vacuous? That is, is it impossible to define comprehensible input in such a way as to make it a statement with empirical content? As McLaughlin has pointed out, this may be difficult for purposes of SLA research because comprehension is an introspective act that is "woefully inadequate" for empirical research. But what do we teachers actually do when we teach by comprehensible input? Actually, a workable operational definition for classroom purposes is not difficult to attain. In a Total Physical Response class, for example, we tell if input has been comprehended from the actions of the learner; in an Natural Approach type of class, from student response, facial expressions, gleam in the eyes, and so on. All these are operational, not introspective devices. The classroom teacher, being in constant contact with students, can develop a faculty for "reading" student comprehension of input in somewhat the same way as an experimental physicist develops a faculty for quick and accurate reading of laboratory instruments from extended work with them. The teacher can thus help the researcher in the quest for precise operational definitions of concepts. Often new teaching methods are tested by controlled experiments in which the differences in classroom practices between experimental and control groups were spelled out in detail in observable, non-introspective terms (see, e.g., Nicola, 1990).

This kind of teacher involvement requires some sort of SLA theory, even if only tentative, as a tool of inquiry in the instrumentalist sense. McLaughlin's caution that Krashen's theory is not the "word of God" (1987, p. 58) is apt in situations where no such involvement exists or is expected, where practitioners are only consumers looking for recipes that can be applied more or less blindly. But in such situations even the *true* word of God is likely to do harm!

The more important reason for theory is to gain freedom from the binds of immediate experience. We have seen this from the development of physical theory. The great advances involved claims that defied common sense experience, such as the idea of the free body moving forever in a straight line, and of a planet attracting another when the two are millions of miles apart. Such claims cannot be established by any experiment. No experiment can decide if the planets move as they do because that is in their nature, as Aristotle thought, or if they started out initially moving in straight lines but the sun's gravity changed their courses into ellipses, as Newton thought. These are simply two different paradigms, and the observed facts of planetary motion can be looked at from either one. What decides between them is more than experiment (Kuhn, 1970, p. 94 ff.).

The SLA field is at present in a state of flux regarding paradigms. Old methods and doctrines are giving way to new, radically different ones. We are in the middle of this shift. Many of us have, for a long time taught grammar-organized courses using audiolingual methods. These were mutually consistent practices supported by research; they made perfect sense within a particular paradigm, as did the Aristotelian world for many centuries. But a shift of paradigm is never easy. Max Planck, who sowed the first seed of the quantum theory, once remarked that a really new idea never gains adherents; rather, its opponents die. It is therefore not surprising that many of us language practitioners do not feel comfortable in the new SLA paradigm. It calls for teaching practices (e.g., not forcing production, not correcting errors, focusing on meaning rather than form, and so on) that seem to go directly against our better judgement. This is inevitable in any paradigm shift. To deal with it creatively requires the courage of doubting even our better judgment. The present situation does not call for repeated exhortations from the wise that we must not be rash and jump onto Krashen's or any other bandwagon too fast, for that goes without saying. If we keep looking backward, fate may not be any kinder to us than it was to Lot's wife. The place to look is forward, and we have an excellent model in another, demonstrably more successful, field than ours from which to judge–one in which major shifts of paradigm very similar to what we are experiencing have occurred.

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Author

Michel Nicola, Instructor, Arabic Department, Middle East School, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: dialects and formal Arabic.

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Teacher as Intensive Student: How It Feels

Carol M. Sparhawk
American University

The purpose of this paper is to describe the experience and reactions of a professional teacher of EFL to a year of intensive Russian at the Foreign Service Institute. Points discussed include the linguistic demands of learning Russian; program placement, methods and materials; techniques of dialogue presentation and student correction; treatment of grammar and supplementary activities, particularly bridges. The writer observes that the audiolingual approach, which dominated the program at the time, was not totally effective in meeting the objective of oral fluency, as many learners expressed needs suggesting a thinking-intuitive learning style. With regard to classroom techniques, self-correction or teacher correction at the end of the student's utterance was most effective.

After having taught English as a foreign language for ten years, in 1982 I had the opportunity to pursue an intensive course in Russian. It was a great pleasure, both because I enjoy learning languages, and because I had a chance to see how it felt to be a student in such a program. In this paper, I will describe the program, compare it with the EFL programs in my experience, and share my reactions. I am sharing my personal observations and do not represent the program in any way. Also, my description represents the program as it was in 1982.

Challenges of Learning Russian

Before examining the methods and materials used in the program, it's necessary to consider the difficulties posed by the language itself, the particular challenges which confront the English-speaking student of Russian. First to arise are the six case inflections which must be attached to Russian nouns and adjectives, depending either on their role in the sentence, or on the preceding verb or preceding preposition. It took the students about four months in the program to master these.

Second, Russian verbs come in pairs. Perfective and imperfective verbs distinguish between action which is uni- or multi-directional, completed or incompleted/repeated. For example, Russian speakers use the verb *chitat'* when they want to say, "I read for a while last night", but they use *prochitat'* to say "I read (that is, completed) *War and Peace*."

Russian verbs of motion constitute the second type of paired verbs. When talking about travel in Russian, one needs to indicate whether one is walking or riding, because a different verb is needed. *idti* and *xodit'* describe walking–uni- or multi-directional, respectively–and *yekhat'* and *yezhat'* describe riding, with the same directional distinction. These distinctions appear in other verbs of motion, including 'run,' 'swim,' 'drive,' 'carry,' 'sail,' and 'lead.'

In addition, the Russian language boasts a rich vocabulary. The language makes more semantic distinctions than does English, and the words are long and difficult to pronounce. But above all the new habits of recognizing case and aspect cause the English-speaking learner of Russian the most difficulty. The spelling system is phonetic. Once the student is introduced to the alphabet, spelling presents much less difficulty in Russian than it does in English.

Placement

For the first eight weeks, placement was determined by the students' performances on the MLAT, and by prior experience in Russian. Every eight weeks, students and teachers were completely rearranged. Subsequent placement was determined by class performance and by performance on a practice FSI interview. While levels in intensive English programs are generally sequential, the levels in the FSI programs are simultaneous. they may be intended to destabilize any dominance patterns which may appear among the students, and to give students exposure to as many other students and to as many native speakers as possible. There is also more overlap in materials between groups than there is between levels in an intensive English program. The reason for this overlap is that all students are expected to end the program at more or less the same level, no matter which group they are in.

As for the time schedule, not all of the week was devoted to language study. On Mondays we attended lectures in English on Soviet culture, and on Fridays we saw movies in Russian. Otherwise, we attended three two-hour classes a day, each with a different instructor.

Materials

The program generously provided the students with materials. We received three books of dialogs, a reader on Moscow, a functional text with lessons on proper forms of address, articles from Russian newspapers, and "survival kits". These kits contained general information, vocabulary and dialogs on the following subjects: public transportation, restaurants, hotels, shopping, theaters and the telephone.

Program Methods

Most of the instruction in the first five months was audiolingual. The students were given a series of short, four-line dialogs and spent most of their class time repeating and memorizing them. After the fifth month, we began reading and translating newspaper articles in class. We also listened to news broadcasts and practiced retelling items from these broadcasts in class. The classes appeared to be designed so that the students could progress without doing much homework, a condition very different from typical requirements in an EFL program. Few specific assignments were made: the day's work consisted to one or two four-line dialogs easily memorized in class. Reading assignments were handed out not to take home but to be done on the same day that they were done in class. Learners were simply required to pay attention. This freedom from responsibility was a relief, since we were in class thirty hours a week.

Dialog Presentation

As for the presentation of the materials discussed above, the first five months of the course particularly revealed variations in the instructors' teaching style, since all used the three books of dialogs and proceeded at almost the same speed. I observed the following techniques of presenting the dialogs:

> 1. The instructor has students repeat each line of dialog twice, and then recite dialogues in pairs from memory. No explanation is given for grammar or vocabulary.
>
> 2. Before repetition of the dialog, the instructor gives questions or example sentences which both utilize new vocabulary and relate it to the students'

experience. In this case, the instructor prefers to practice the vocabulary than to memorize the dialogs.

3. At the beginning of each class, the instructor either reads sentences in English to be translated into Russian, or asks questions in Russian which are to be answered with much repetition, e.g., "How did you get to the Institute today?" "I got to the Institute on the Metro." These questions and answers exercise the vocabulary and grammar which has previously appeared in the dialog.

4. Before repetition of a new dialog, the instructor conjugates all verbs and gives vocabulary which is formally related to new vocabulary in the dialog.

Should the dialogs be memorized? The teachers seemed to disagree on this point. I found that temporary memorization was helpful. That is, if I tried to memorize a dialog during a class hour, or in the language laboratory, the major grammar points and vocabulary remained with me. The dialogs provided examples, also, for the proper use of grammatical points. If they were lively, infused with any human interest or emotion, they were even easier to remember (Stevick 1980:257).

As we learned these dialogs, and freqently made mistakes, I had the opportunity to observe first hand the following types of correction techniques and their effect on the learner:

1. Teacher interrupts and supplies the correct form. When the student finally completes a perfect sentence, teacher showers student with praise.

2. Teacher interrupts, supplies correction in an annoyed tone, and sometimes adds grammatical explanation to show the logic of the correction.

3. Teacher waits until student is finished, then supplies correction quietly, e.g., "Today is the fifth, yes?" when the student corrects the sentence, teacher goes on without delay.

4. Teacher waits till student finishes sentence, and says that there were two mistakes. Student is allowed to self-correct.

5. Teacher interrupts student when mistake is made, but does not supply correct form. Student is given three chances to self-correct.

Which of these techniques seem most effective? I found interruption and correction in an annoyed tone of voice to be extremely upsetting. The teacher may forget what the errors were, however, if he waits until the end of a long student monolog. The two techniques striking me as most effective were matter of fact correction (3) and self-correction (4,5).

Because students constantly make errors, the treatment of errors greatly influences the pace of the class. The more a correction interrupts, the more nervous all the students become, because their strong desire to communicate is frustrated, and the sequence of activity is destroyed.

Treatment of Grammar

In general, grammar explanations were discouraged in class. The director gave detailed explanations and answered our questions in a weekly lecture. We received handouts and were also recommended a reference text. On reflection, I prefer grammar on a regular basis, either with a regular daily class period or with a text that is grammatically organized. Due to the complexity of grammatical systems, students often memorize words but fail to appreciate their interaction with other sentence elements. They learn dialogs but cannot construct their own sentences. For this reason a systematic approach is preferable to the adult learner.

Supplementary Activities

I've previously mentioned the supplementary programs and activities of the Russian Program. In this program, supplementary studies included area studies, film, the language laboratory and extended roleplays which were called "bridges." Vocabulary lists in Russian were given with each lecture in area studies. On the day following the lecture, an instructor reviewed, in English, pronunciation and context sentences for the new vocabulary, and gave comprehension questions in Russian on the lecture. Although the exercise was difficult, it afforded excellent practice and gave the students the opportunity to discuss sophisticated topics in Russian.

Popular Soviet films were also shown during the course of the semester, including War and Peace, several comedies and an adventure story. The films were shown without Russian subtitles.I estimated my comprehension at roughly 60 percent. Besides providing a change of pace, the films offered a valuable experience of Soviet culture. The language could be heard in context, with natural idiomatic usage, intonation and gesture.

When speaking proficiency is the primary goal, outside work in the language lab is essential. With a language as difficult as Russian, even simple repetition of dialogs is helpful. When the learner is anticipating rather than simply repeating taped utterances, the recording can function as an aid to memorization. I found the VOA broadcasts most useful, and I developed the following techniques for using them. First, I would take notes and then try to retell the news item. Second, I would repeat the news broadcast word for word in two-or three-word segments. Last, I would write down words recognized from classroom reading, or new words whose meaning had become clear in the context of the news broadcast. Although accompanying exercises had been provided for weather reports, none had been provided for VOA news broadcasts. In such exercises, short-answer questions were most helpful as they focused the student's attention on the most important points.

Conversation

As we progressed, we spent some class time on free conversation and on aural comprehension as well as on dialogues. Here are some techniques employed by the teachers:

1. Initiating the class with an anecdote or joke, talking for ten minutes in Russian.

2. Asking students, "What's new?" Students are expected to tell what they did over the weekend, or to relate an interesting news event.

3. Encouraging students to "role-play" dialogs from the survival kits, freely adding variations–salesman and customer, or asking directions. Some of the students found these roleplays too unpredictable, because of constant unfamiliar variations and interruptions by the teacher.

4. Reading a story to students, asking content questions, and having students retell the story. This was successful, as the stories were interesting and the instructor proceeded in manageable segments.

5. Asking students to describe the appearance of another student, or of a photograph, or to explain how they got to class that day–e.g., to perform a complete conversational turn.

A certain amount of structure is needed to make conversation activities successful. Learners do better and feel better if the content is specific, shared by others, and can partly be prepared at home. Short monologs are more useful than long oral reports.

Bridges

The most interesting supplementary exercises were the bridges, extended roleplays lasting two or three days. Ostensibly the bridges simulated situations likely to arise abroad. In the bridges, the learner was expected to apply his/her limited knowledge of Russian to a successful transaction with a native speaker who made no allowance for the learner's limited proficiency. To gain practice in managing a responsible, official transaction with limited language skills was a central objective of the bridge. Presented every two months, the bridges simulated such exchanges as consular transactions, dealing with confused or desperate host country nationals, explaining a traffic accident to a policeman, or taking information over the telephone.

A typical bridge lasted two or three days. Before Day One, the learners received a set of lines to learn with a script showing their part and that of the native speaker. In addition, they received a taped dialog of their "part" and of the two unscripted variants for the native speaker. The learners could hear the variants on tape, but they could not read them.

During the first day or two of the bridge, the teachers would rehearse the dialogs and variants. They would also ask students to gist documents which might come up in relation to the simulation, such as police forms for accidents, weather reports and travel schedules. On the last day, the student would enact the simulation alone with a native speaker, who would present a situation that was different from the rehearsed material, but a logical extension thereof. Thus, the learner could use the lines he had learned, and draw on his rehearsed experience, but he could not predict everything that would occur during the simulation.

These bridges demanded a tremendous amount of preparation by the instructional staff, who must prepare all the dialogs, variants, supplementary readings, and class reschedulings. The bridges were extremely frustrating for students who tended to learn, in Krashen's terms, according to the monitor model rather than the acquisition model, and who had great difficulty speaking in Russian. However, the bridges did provide reasonably effective simulations of real-life situations, in that no one corrected the learners, but no one spoke slowly or simplified the vocabulary either.

Conclusion

So far I've reviewed, as I saw them, the goals, methods and techniques of the program which I observed. I'd like to extract some reflections on good teaching, some ideas for English programs, and some suggestions for student self-help.

First, how does it feel, after teaching, to be an intensive student? At first, it's refreshing to be learning a language again. After four corrections, however, it feels humiliating to try again. At four in the afternoon, after six hours of practicing cases and reviewing dialogs, being an intensive student is no longer exciting.

Second, what does it mean to be an intensive student? Clearly, it requires a tremendous investment of time, money and energy into learning a language. Earl Stevick observed (1980, p.198), that "the quality of the YIELD one gets in return for a particular act of INVESTMENT has a powerful effect on one's readiness to invest further." Stevick was specifically referring to teacher-student interaction here, but the principle applies equally well to language learning as a whole. To be an intensive student means to dispense a great deal of energy on learning a language and to feel insecure much of the time. The student may feel nervous when asked to say something in the target language, and may wish to withdraw altogether when strongly corrected. A student needs considerable self-confidence to succeed in an intensive program, and a teacher should support and encourage the student's confidence as much as possible.

Third, what can we conclude about goals, methods and techniques? Even though speaking was emphasized in the Russian Program, writing should not be ignored by the serious student. Writing in the language gives one the opportunity to make connections and to practice independently, and to discover questions which might not otherwise come up in class.

In addition, the Russian Program demonstrated one valuable feature of the audiolingual approach. No matter how much one reads or writes, speaking the language requires that the patterns are remembered aurally as well as visually. Repetition and memorization seem to establish those patterns more effectively than writing.

As a language learner, I am able to remember isolated words and examples, and I prefer to learn by example rather than by rule. Most of my fellow students, however, seemed to me to be cognitive learners.

Several mentioned that they had to see a word in print before they could remember it. Rules seemed to make learning easier for many students, who complained when teachers would not discuss grammar rules in class.

A strictly audiolingual approach assumes that adults learn as preliterate children do. In fact, they don't: they see, they organize, and they reinforce by writing. Having acquired the skills of literacy, adults come to depend on those skills. When I participated in this program, it did not really accomodate a variety of learning styles, and particularly such adult learning styles, because they were viewed, most probably, as redolent of the grammar-translation approach. I am sure that the situation has changed since then. A good program should accomodate a variety of learning styles, as Ehrman (1990) has maintained in her research on personality style and language learning.

What improvements would I suggest for an English program, based on my experience? While I felt that the Russian program should have encouraged more writing, the English programs in which I've taught should encourage much more speaking and listening. English programs might as well experiment with the bridges. I learned that these simulations are most effective if students prepare their roles at home; spontaneous enactment is often too chaotic to be effective. Finally, the structure of the material presented to students should be clear to the students as well as to the teachers.

As for ideas on good teaching, correction is necessary, but it should be done as tactfully and as quietly as possible. Class structures and teacher-student interactions should be varied much more than I observed. Finally, a good teacher both interests the students and protects their self-confidence.

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Author

Carol M. Sparhawk, Assistant Professor of Linguistics and ELT, Department of Languages and Foreign Studies, American University, Arlington, VA 22201. Specializations: applied linguistics and teaching methods.

FACULTY EXCHANGE

Putting Meaning Before Form

Jean-Michel Terdjman
School of Romance Languages

Language is a means, a tool, for communication. Intentionality, or the desire to communicate, is *always* there, from the outset. Form comes only secondarily, as a servant to the conveying of meaning.

So, even though there is no language without form, form, as such, does not make language. Form *per se* is nothing more than a mass of visual or aural signals. It is only when meaning is there that form comes to life–that is, becomes language.

Language begins when meaning is embodied in form, when some meaning, or intentionality, is present. And then this form–in some mysterious way, and almost at random–is endowed with meaning and thus becomes language.

If we agree on this basic understanding of language, then the comments below are applicable to the teaching of foreign languages.

Achievement and Proficiency

Achievement is concerned with *form*, *proficiency* with *meaning*. Achievement teaching and testing are concerned with control of form by the student and may be completely devoid of any meaning, or at least of any useful meaning (e.g.,"La plume de ma tante ..."). Proficiency training is directed at enabling the student to convey or understand meaning with the use of form, but not simply at *controlling* form. In proficiency training and testing, *form is never an end in itself.*

Achievement training and proficiency training each has its place in language learning, but:

- Achievement without proficiency enables the student to manipulate form. Yet form is devoid of any real intentional meaning, hence useless as true communication.

- Achievement–i.e., emphasis on correct form–is much more critical to reaching level 3 than to reaching level 1. Thus, interestingly, beginners should be involved mostly with proficiency training, turning to achievement-oriented activities only later in the course.

No English, Please

Learning a foreign language involves equating a given meaning (message) with the forms the language designates to convey that message. It is the relation of meaning to target language that has to be established, *not* the relation of native language to target language. We want to relate meaning to form, not form to form. Since they are used to functioning in their native language, people have a tendency to confuse, or to equate, meaning with native language, not realizing that the language they are used to is only a formal embodiment of meaning, and not meaning itself.

Obviously, meaning and intentionality must be established before the student is exposed to the *form* of the target language. So, one may object, why not use the native language to establish meaning? Answer: because use of the native language in the learning process will result in meaning's being conveyed in the native language, which is then used to convey *information about the forms* of the target language. Students must associate meaning with the form of the target language, and wean themselves away from the usual and comforting association of meaning with native language.

Teachers have a tendency to use English in the classroom because they think their role is to teach the forms of the target language, with meaning following, somehow, as a byproduct of form–and because using the known language is the easy, stress-free (albeit totally wasteful) way out for everybody involved. Teachers must have the necessary imagination, know-how, skill, and empathy with students to bypass the native language so as to establish meaning and intentionality. On the other hand, it is hard to overestimate the potential of intentionality in language and communication once a meaningful context has been established.

So, here at the Defense Language Institute, where English is our students' native language, the *modus operandi* in the classroom should be "No English, please." The only exceptions to the rule are as follows:

- When students want to say something, but lack the necessary vocabulary or structures, they can furnish the English equivalent, *and then immediately employ the target-language materials as they are provided.* This is acceptable only because the need to communicate–i.e., intentionality–has already been established.

- Sometimes the students may ask for explanations and clarifications that would require lengthy discourses and obscure metaphors in the target language. The teacher then may give the English equivalent, as long as it is only a short expression *and not a complete sentence* (in which case the basis for meaningful exchange in the classroom would revert to English). Phrases like "I would rather have done" or "it might as well be" might qualify, because of their complexity, for a direct translation into English.
- There is a simple rule concerning the use of English in explanations of grammar or vocabulary. Either the instruction is at the level of the concrete–in which case drawings on the board, mimicry, gestures, etc., will suffice–or it is at a higher level (2 and above). In the latter case, the students are advanced enough to understand explanations in the target language. So, English can always be bypassed. The need to use English is a sure sign that we are trying to teach level 2-3 grammar to level-1 students. We are wasting their time and ours.

Awareness of Proficiency Levels

As the previous remarks suggest, descriptions of proficiency levels clearly should be the backbone of any foreign language course. Progression of a proficiency-oriented course should be based *solely* on the level descriptions and *not* on grammar, vocabulary, or any other contents based on sheer form (numbers, specialized vocabulary,etc.). Teachers must know the levels in themselves, and must also be able to evaluate the students' level(s) at any given time in the course. Teaching level-2 grammar (an important process) to level 0+ students is a waste of time. We then have students with a knowledge of the *forms* of the target language at level 2, but with a proficiency level stuck at 0+.

Use of Authentic Documents

Most textbooks have a built-in bias towards form. The writers seem to have form in mind when they start their work. If they were motivated by meaning–that is, if they had something to express beyond form–they would say so. And they would write a poem, an essay, a proclamation, an opera.

If we want meaning, we will find it in authentic materials, which have come into being precisely for the purpose of conveying meaning. If we want meaning, and if we find it in existing, easy- and cheap-to-procure authentic materials, what on earth is the point of writing textbooks?

The only justification for including an achievement-based textbook as a minor component of the course is psychological in nature: Some students need to have a formal structure, which gives them the illusion of orderly progress in their language learning, as well as a reassuring base-point and reference against which to check their progress.

But, one might object, authentic materials are "too difficult." They are all at level 3 or above. In other words, they are OK for native speakers, but beyond the reach of our students–now and for a long time to come. (This objection is usually presented by teachers who then proceed to teach their hapless students level-3 grammar, preferably in English.) The answer is simple: Put meaning before form, and *any* authentic materials can be used–at any level, at any time in the course. Of course, some materials are more useful or more pleasant than others for proficiency-oriented classroom activities.

Good TV or magazine advertisements, for instance, are 90 percent meaning and 10 percent form. They have been conceived to convey meaning in the most forceful manner, and form ensues almost automatically. Plus, they can be used at all levels. Level 0+ to 1? ... colors, numbers, objects, people, "how many?". Level 2? ... action, events, "what preceded?" "what will follow?" Level 3? ... those things that work in the ad: sex, greed, humor.

But even the *Wall Street Journal* can be used on the first day of training: What is the title? the date? the price?; how many pictures? drawings? pages?, etc. Again, awareness of the levels enables the teacher to adjust the level of activities to the level of the students.

Anticipation is also an excellent illustration of the strategy of putting meaning before form in language teaching. By asking students to be alert to certain elements of information in a text, before we present it to them, we first establish meaning, and we create the need to obtain and relay information. By asking 0+ students to be attentive to numbers in a weather report, or by asking 1+ students to be attentive to the general sequence of events in any news item, we establish the meaning (the context), thus readying the students to deal with the forms they will discover in the text.

Grammar: Students Should Write Their Own

Grammar is not necessary to produce a level-1 student. But nobody can reach level 3 without a *conscious* (learned, rather than acquired) knowledge of grammar. If we don't have a grammar-driven curriculum, if we ignore grammar and accuracy, are we not running the risk of producing terminal 1+ students?

Again, if we adhere to the principle of meaning before form, the problem is easily solved. At the end of meaning- and communication-driven activities, the teacher can draw the attention of students to grammar points: Note this verb form, this pronoun, this tense, this declension, etc. Students should have a notebook or printed brochure with empty blocks only. These they will fill in *as they encounter the various forms of grammar and structure inherent in meaningful, communicative language*, and never merely for the sake of completing a grammar lesson.

The students then will be stimulated to watch for the other forms necessary to fill in the remaining blocks, thus writing their own grammar references in the form of model sentences–all based on their practical experience in the classroom.

Again, meaning is the driving force, and form is there only to follow, to serve, or to reinforce meaning.

Communicative Approach

Language is a means of communication. In the communicative approach, students practice the language by truly communicating. What is true communication? Anything that is being said, read, listened to, or written *for any purpose other than mere form for its own sake.*

In a communicative approach, activities are always student-centered, *never* teacher-centered or textbook-centered. The teacher triggers in the students–especially at the beginning of the course–the need for communication, the motivation to convey and to receive information (communicative gap). The form needed for the actual communication will be provided according to the communicative needs of the students, in relation to the tasks of each level, and *not* in relation to a pre-established curriculum (grammar objectives, vocabulary objectives, lesson plan, etc.). By having a desire to communicate, the students *already* know what they want to say, or the type of information they want to obtain. Meaning has already been established; form may now follow.

Summary and Procedures

- Establish meaning and intention to communicate through concrete examples at level 0+-1, and by using the target language at higher levels. The *Reglettes de Cuisenaire* are a good example of the concrete approach.
- Add form to the meaning by working (at the beginning) with concrete, authentic materials.
- By using concrete, authentic materials, one proceeds from meaning to form (target-language form), and not from English to target-language form. In the latter case, the meaning would remain English-based, with our students believing that French, for example, is English with French words (English in a French form)–thus effectively undermining their potential for functioning in French.

A final comment on meaning, form, and student anguish. Students cannot function when they are petrified with fear. When do they feel helpless, humiliated, resentful, angry, and the like? When they are confronted with form that lacks meaning. Whenever form comes before meaning, a no-win situation is created that has but one way out: the indiscriminate use of English. The inevitable result? Class time becomes an excellent English proficiency-enhancement session–for both student and teacher.

A teacher who keeps in mind–at all times and as a basic guiding principle–that meaning comes before form will have a pleasant, anxiety-free, cheerful class, as well as a very productive one.

Author

Jean-Michel Terdjman, Chairperson, French Department, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: Indian philosophy and proficiency training in the classroom.

Diglossia in Arabic: The Phenomenon, and Some Possible Solutions*

Howard D. Rowland
School of Middle East Languages

The term "diglossia" means a gap or difference between a given community's official, literary language and the language which the citizens of that community use for the purposes of everyday oral communication. It exists everywhere in the world, to one degree or another.

In a considerable number of countries–especially Third World countries that were formerly colonies of European or Western powers–the official language (or language most widely used for official purposes) is a European language, whereas the language used for everyday oral communication is a native language. Some classic examples of this are English and Tagalog in the Philippines, Spanish and Guarani in Paraguay, and French and Arabic (in addition to Berber) in Morocco and Algeria.

But in most countries the diglossia or linguistic gap is between two forms of the same native language. Often the gap is not great (as in the case of the American English of the U.S. media and that which is widely spoken by–particularly educated–native Americans,[1] or the Russian of the Soviet media and the Russian spoken in daily life in the USSR). Sometimes, however, the forms of the language differ so much that one is very tempted to consider them to be separate languages. This is certainly the case when comparing, for example, High German to Plattdeutsch or Swiss German, and it is very definitely the case when juxtaposing Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) or, as it is sometimes called, Literary Arabic, and the colloquial Arabic dialects.

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* *Abridgement of a 32-page term paper written in Arabic by Dr. Howard D. Rowland, under the supervision of Mr. Henri Zoghaib, for the 1990 summer session of the advanced course at Middlebury College's School of Arabic, Middlebury Vermont.*

Table 1 (*selected arabic lexical items*), *p. 47*, gives some idea of the difference not only between MSA and the colloquial Arabic of everal areas in the Arab world, but also shows how different the lexical items of the various dialects can be from each other.

Or if we take, for example, a small narrative paragraph and render it in MSA as well as in the Iraqi, Syro-Lebanese, Egyptian, and Moroccan dialects, we also find very striking differences[2]:

English: Yesterday I was sitting in the coffeehouse with my brother and we were drinking coffee. I said to him: "You're not talking much today. What's the problem?" He said: "I have a big problem. I want to get married, but I don't have money for the bridal payment. And as you know: 'No money, no bride.'"

MSA: (ana) kuntu jaalisan ams ma9a akhi fil-maqha wa-kunna nashrab al-qahwah wa-(ana) qultu lahu: "anta la tatakallam kathiiran al-yawm. ma hiya al-mushkilah?" wa-(huwwa) qaal: "9indi mushkilah kabiirah. uriid an atazawwaj, walaakin laysa li al-maal lil-mahr. wa-kama ta9rif: 'la fuluus, la 9aruus.'"

Iraqi (Baghdad): aani chinit gaa9id il-baarHa wiyya akhuuya bil-gahwa w-chinna da-nishrab gahwa w-aani gitt-la: "inta ma da-tiHchi hwaaya l-yoom. shinu l-mushkila?" w-huwwa gaal: "9indi mushkila chibiira. ariid atzawwuj, bass ma 9indi li-fluus lil-mahar. w-mithil-ma tu9ruf: 'maaku fluus, maaku 9aruus.'"

Syro-Lebanese (Beirut): ana kint aa9id mbaariH ma9 khayyi bil-ahwe w-kinna 9am-nishrab ahwe w-ana ultillo: "inte mish 9am-tiHki ktiir il-yoom. shu l-mushkile?" w-huwwe aal: "9andi mushkile kbiire. biddi itzhawwaz, bass ma fiih ma9i maSaari lil-mahir. w-mitil-ma bta9rif: 'ma fiih fluus, ma fiih 9aruus.'"

Egyptian (Cairo): ana kunt(i) aa9id imbaariH ma9 akhuuya fil-ahwa wi-kunna binishrab ahwa w-ana ult-ilu: "inta ma bititkallimsh(i) kitiir in-naharda. eeh il-mushkila?" wi-huwwa aal: "9andi mushkila kibiira. 9aawiz atgawwiz, bass(i) ma 9andiish il-filuus lil-mahr. wi-zayy(i)-ma ta9raf: 'ma fiish filuus, ma fiish 9aruus."

Table 1.

English	MSA	Iraqi	Syro-Lebanese	Egyptian	Moroccan
now	al-aan	hassa	halla'	dilwa'ti	daba
tomorrow	ghadan	baachir	bukra	bukra	ghedda
I want	uriid	ariid/ard	biddi/baddi	9aawiz/9aayiz	bghit
good	jayyid	zeen	mniiHs	kwayyis	mezyan
very	jiddan	hwaaya/kullish	ktiir	awi	bezzaf
who	man	minu	miin	miin	shkun
how	kayf	shloon	kiif/shloon	izzaay	kifash/kif
table	maa'ida	meez	Taawle	tarabeeza	Tabla
mine	li	maali	taba9i	bitaa9i	dyali
there is	yuujad	aku	fiih	fiih	kayin
good-bye	ila l-liqaa'	fi amaan aLLa	b-khaaTrak	salaamu 9alaykum/ ma9a s-salaama	bes-slama
what	maadha	shinu	shu	eeh	shnu/ash
why	li-maadha	lweesh/leesh	leesh	leeh	9alash
I'm working	a9mal	da-ashtughul	9am-bishtighil	bashtaghil	ka-nekhdem

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Moroccan (Fez)[3]: ana kent gales l-barH m9a khay fel-qehwa w-kenna ka-nsherbu l-qehwa zhit ana qult-lu: "nta ma-taddwish bezzaf l-yom. kayin shi mushkila?" zha huwa qal: "9andi mushkila kbira. bghit ndzuwwezh, walakin flus S-Sdaq ma 9andish. w-kif ka-ta9raf: 'ma kayin flus, ma kayin 9rus.'"

Needless to say, this huge gap between MSA and the Arabic dialects, as well as the wide gap between the regional dialects themselves, has caused language problems in the Arab world. Traditionally, MSA has been utilized in all official writing, communication, literature, education, etc., and on all formal occasions, whereas the dialects are used for oral communication on all informal occasions. But there are occasions where the roles overlap, and very often people's command of MSA is not sufficient to enable them to easily and correctly express themselves when this is required. The extreme diglossia in Arabic is also partly responsible for the Arab world's widespread problem of illiteracy, has helped maintain the gulf between the educated elite and the less educated masses, and the differences in the dialects have made oral communication difficult between Arabs from regions far away from each other unless they belong to the small percentage of Arabs who have a good oral command of MSA (which is virtually identical throughout the Arab world)[4].

I thought it might be interesting to suggest some possible solutions to this Arabic diglossia, elicit the reactions of some native Arabic instructors to these alternatives, and then reach my own conclusion or conclusions–based on a combination of the reactions of the Arabs and my own opinion concerning the matter. To this end, I proposed the following four possible solutions or scenarios:

1. The spread of MSA as a universally spoken native language in the Arab world, and the disappearance of the dialects.

2. The spread of MSA as a universally spoken second language, in addition to the dialects.

3. The disappearance of MSA, and its replacement by the principal regional dialects.

4. The adoption of a foreign international language, in place of MSA, as the official language, and retention of the dialects.

In addition to the above, I brought up the question of the merit, or lack thereof, of adopting the Latin alphabet, in place of the Arabic alphabet, for writing MSA and/or the Arabic dialects.

Each of the above-mentioned alternatives, as well as the idea of utilizing the Latin alphabet for writing Arabic, has its pluses and minuses. For example, implementation of the first proposed solution would require a very long time, enormous resources, and huge efforts, but the diglossia problem would be solved once and for all. The second proposal is very feasible and would not require nearly as much time, effort, and resources, but does not fully represent a solution to the problem. The third solution is a distinctly practical or feasible one, but would result in irreparable fragmentation of the Arabic-speaking world and the Arabs would, to a great degree, end up losing touch with much of their heritage and would lose access to all previously-written literature (such as happened in Turkey after the Latin alphabet was adopted for Turkish in 1928). The fourth solution might contribute greatly toward increasing contacts between the Arabs and the technologically more advanced world of the Europeans, Americans, and others who speak European languages, and should thereby result in bringing more modern progress to the Arab world, but it does not represent a solution to the diglossia problem and, in fact, would result in bringing about an even greater diglossia problem. Also, like the third solution, the fourth solution would no doubt be highly unpopular among the masses of today's Arabs who not so long ago became independent of colonial rule.

As for the use of the Latin alphabet for Arabic, this has some practical advantages (easier for children to learn, better for typing and printing, in conformity with the writing system of the majority of the other languages of the world, better able to render the phonetics and actual pronunciation of Arabic–or any other language, for that matter), but there are also some disadvantages in following this approach (since the Latin alphabet has no standard way of representing some of Arabic's gutteral and emphatic consonants, it takes up more space than Arabic writing does, it cannot be written as rapidly as Arabic script can, it is generally considered to be less esthetic, and adopting it would result in cutting the Arabs off from their past literature and other writings).

These proposed solutions were then put into the form of a questionnaire which was circulated to each of the Arabic instructors of the Middlebury School of Arabic's 1990 summer session. They were asked: 1) which solution do you personally prefer, 2) which solution represents the prevailing trend in the Arab world as a whole, 3) which solution represents the prevailing trend in your native country, 4) what is your opinion concerning the use of the Latin alphabet for writing MSA and/or the Arabic dialects, and 5) what other comments do you have concerning this issue?

Those responding to the questionnaire were:

1. *Dr. Peter Abboud* - Palestinian (from Jaffa), professor of Arabic, head of the Dept. of Oriental and African Languages and Literatures at the University of Texas, and director of Middlebury's School of Arabic program.
2. *Dr. Aman Atieh* - native of South Lebanon, professor of Arabic at the Dept. of Oriental and African Languages and Literatures at the University of Texas, and assistant director of Middlebury's School of Arabic program.
3. *Dr. Tahir Badjinki* - Syrian (from Aleppo), professor of English at the University of Aleppo.
4. *Dr. Munzer Muhammad* - Syrian (from Latakia), professor of English at the University of Aleppo.
5. *Mr. Henri Zoghaib* - Lebanese (from Beirut), writer and poet, currently working in the United States.
6. *Mr. Moncef Lahlou* - Moroccan (from Fez), professor of English Composition at the University of Texas.
7. *Mr. Abbas al-Tonsi* - Egyptian (from Cairo), professor of Arabic at the American University of Cairo.

Results of the Questionnaire

The overwhelming majority of the seven respondents favored the *second* of the four options *(the spread of MSA as a universally spoken second language, in addition to the dialects)*, and asserted that this represented the prevailing trend both in their native countries and in the Arab world as a whole. Surprisingly, none of these instructors–all of whom are exceptionally fluent and correct in their speech when expressing themselves in MSA–favored adopting the first solution (the spread of MSA as a universally spoken native language, and the disappearance of the dialects). Also, somewhat surprising was the fact that Mr. Zoghaib, a Lebanese poet whose oral command of MSA is so fluent, natural, and complete that one would never suspect that it was not his native spoken language, favored the third solution (the disappearance of MSA and its replacement by the principal regional dialects) and emphatically favored using the Latin alphabet for writing these dialects.

Conclusion

Based on the opinions of these seven educated Arabs, as well as on the basis of my own views–which represent a combination of my personal ideas plus the opinions on this matter expressed to me by Arab friends whom I have known at DLI and elsewhere–my conclusion is that the only practical and realistic option is the *second* one, i.e., *the gradual emergence of MSA as a language which the Arabs universally speak, in addition to their native spoken dialects.* My experience at Middlebury demonstrated to me that there is no reason why MSA cannot eventually emerge as a second native language spoken by everyone in the Arab world, especially with the increase in literacy and education that will inevitably take place in the Middle East and North Africa in the future.

Likewise, for practical and esthetic reasons, I feel I must agree with the Arabs that *Arabic should continue to be written in Arabic script.* Not only is it the script in which one of the world's great civilizations has expressed itself for hundreds of years–it is also a work of art as such. And the spread of education in the Arab world has meant that more and more Arabs are learning the Latin alphabet at an early age, are mastering foreign languages, and are coming into contact with the educationally and technologically more advanced West and Japan.

Notes

[1] There are, of course, millions of native Americans who speak varieties of English which differ radically from that of the media and educated classes. One vivid example of such "non-standard" American English is the so-called "Black English." During the summer of 1957, in my hometown of New Orleans, Louisiana, I had a summer job working in a paper company warehouse where I was the only white person, with about 15 black co-workers. At first I had great difficulty understanding their speech, but after about three months of working there, I ended up not only understanding them quite well, but also generally speaking like they did--much to the chagrin of my parents in the evening at our dinner table.

[2] These renditions of the narrative in MSA and the dialects were verified by the Arabic instructors at Middlebury College.

[3] The "e" in the Moroccan dialect sample represents the "schwa" sound which often totally disappears in normal, rapid speech. For example, "at six o'clock," in the Moroccan dialect, can be either "fes-settá" or "fs-sttá."

[4] Based on information obtained during a personal interview with Mr. Henri Zoghaib, on July 24, 1990, at Middlebury College.

Author

Howard D. Rowland, Course Writer, School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: teaching of Arabic and Russian, development of Arabic language-teaching materials.

Helping Students Cope with Supplemental Materials: The Design and Use of Learner Notebooks

Charles Cole
Korean School

With the advent of the Teaching for Proficiency Movement in Foreign Language Education (FLED), significant changes have been made to second language (SL) and foreign language (FL) curricula. As seen in almost all DLI basic course programs today, one of these changes has been the effort to "go beyond the textbook" in the transition from achievement-based curricula to those with a greater emphasis on proficiency. One widely used vehicle for this transition has been the extensive use of supplemental materials and accompanying learning activities in most of our DLI basic courses.

While the vast majority of DLI students benefit greatly from the use of these additional materials and activities, some have complained that their organization/sequencing seems random at best, if not chaotic. In order to assist students to cope with the volume of supplemental materials used in today's modified courses, it has proven helpful to suggest to them that they create "learner notebooks" at that point in the course at which supplemental materials appear. In those departments where students have been encouraged to use learner notebooks the students have often found that this is an excellent way for them to organize the supplemental materials practiced in class and in homework, providing them with a vehicle for ongoing, systematic, and individualized review of vocabulary, grammar patterns and recurring semantic and syntactic features which appear in the passages which augment the core curriculum. For this purpose, many students have organized their learner notebooks in a loose-leaf format, using a three-ring binder and arranging the texts/passages/stimuli by thematic/topic domain. Such an organization provides maximum flexibility and enhances the individuality of such learner notebooks.

For example, when beginning the phase/term of instruction during which supplemental materials appear, students can be given a list of sample topic domains for use in setting up the main sections of their notebooks. The following list, while far from exhaustive, illustrates such a sample list:

- International Relations
- Economics/Finance
- Accidents/Natural Disasters
- Crime/Terrorism/Espionage
- Weather Forecasts/Broadcasts
- Industry/Trade/Labor-Management
- Government/Politics
- Science/Technology
- Culture/Cultural Exchange
- Travel/Transportation
- Recreation/Leisure Activities
- History/Historical Events
- Health/Medicine/Ecology
- Education/Careers
- Military/Military-related News Stories
- Miscellaneous Current Events (often transcending two or more other domains)

Again, the above list is arbitrary and many students may classify various texts/passages under different topical categories. The point is that such an overall organizational allows for a systematic way for our students to arrange the materials for further study and ongoing, systematic review.

Having arranged their notebooks by such general, global topic domains the students can then set up subcategories of each section, including therein subsections dealing with vocabulary, semantic equivalents, recurring grammatical patterns, syntactic features, etc. Since most supplemental materials contain vocabulary and grammar patterns previously not covered in the course, students can copy down all such items contained in the texts, determine their meaning/usage, and make a list of same in the section of their notebooks dealing with that topic/theme. Again, where this system has been used, it has proven quite helpful to many students in making order out of what is often seen as a random, chaotic process. It has also assisted students in organizing their homework efforts to facilitate cumulative review of topical/thematic vocabulary and this, in turn, has helped them achieve better scores on the end-of-course proficiency test. Finally, such learner notebooks can provide a vehicle for students who wish to pursue further study in the language beyond DLI due to the flexibility and expandability built into this system. As our graduates read newspaper and other articles on various topics, they can expand existing sections and subsections of their notebooks and add new sections to accommodate articles and passages on even the most exotic subjects and topics, thus assisting them to proceed to higher levels of proficiency in the long term.

Author

Charles Cole, Dean, Korean School, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: foreign language teaching, error analysis, curriculum design.

Individual Coaching for Language Proficiency

Albert Arellano
School of Romance Languages

The current emphasis on language instruction for proficiency makes individual coaching more important. Proficiency testing as conducted by the ILR oral interview does not evaluate how much knowledge of the target language the student has achieved, but whether or not he can negotiate a given situation by the oral use of the TL. To be successful on the DLPT the student has to show proficiency in speaking and understanding the TL that goes beyond the material available in textbooks and audio-visual aids. Here, individual coaching in face-to-face informal conversation is necessary.

Mastery of a foreign language involves acquisition and learning. In the learning process the student accumulates knowledge about the TL from books, audio and video tapes, computer programs, etc. while in the acquisition process the student picks up the TL as it is used in actual situations. Language acquisition results from dealing with TL speakers in everyday life. Ideally, the language acquisition process can best take place in the TL country. Short of this, a measure of acquisition can be attained by frequent association with TL native speakers.

It is not unusual that highly motivated individuals become proficient speakers of a foreign language in their own home country. One such individual acquired speaking proficiency in American English by attending classes at his local American Binational Center and then looking for opportunities to practice with native Americans. Over a cup of coffee at the Center's cafeteria, he would watch American teachers in informal gatherings and listen to their conversation for insights into pronunciation and usage. Whenever he saw a new teacher at the cafeteria, he would engage him/her in conversation using what he had learned in class, making himself understood the best he could. Noticing his genuine interest in the American language, the new teachers had the necessary patience to understand his broken English and helped him keep the conversation going. Although this enterprising individual did not have the chance to come to the U.S., in time he became a teacher at the Binational Center where he learned and acquired his TL.

The more opportunities for association with native speakers, the more opportunities for picking up the TL both consciously and unconsciously. That is, acquiring the TL not only through the spoken words of a language, but also by the meaning conveyed through information, pauses, eye contact, and face and body expression. While audio and video tapes go beyond non-illustrated books and computer programs in presenting such extra linguistic meanings, there is no substitute for individual coaching by educated native speakers.

DLI commitment to the principle of smaller classes for better language instruction is shown by maintaining the ratio of one instructor per ten students in regular class periods, and by conducting extra coaching for remedial and enrichment purposes with no more than three students per instructor.

This arrangement is adequate for students whose goal is to reach the required proficiency levels on the basic course DLPT. But for students who are assigned to a particular country, self-motivation and extra individual coaching are necessary for success. Here, instructors who were born and educated or have lived in the TL country, are best for extra coaching. These instructors can effectively help students not only with the subtleties and nuances of the particular country's dialect, but also by describing and explaining particular traditions and political situations, as well as insights about the idiosyncrasy of the local people. This goes beyond the regular curriculum and can be accomplished to a certain extent by individual coaching concurrent with the basic language course.

On request, DLI schools do make arrangements to get motivated students and native TL instructors together for extra speaking practice in interview situations. This unique combination of effort can result in language proficiency and cultural awareness that cannot be attained otherwise. There are rewards for both motivated students and willing instructors: a better preparation for the student at his/her assigned post, and a better performance evaluation for the instructor by his/her department chairperson. With this joint effort, student, instructor, and school can truly say "mission accomplished."

Author

Albert Arellano, Training Instructor, Spanish Department, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute. Specialization: student motivation

NEWS and VIEWS

Teacher Education at TESOL '90

Deanna Tovar
School of Romance Languages

The 24th Annual TESOL Convention, held in San Francisco this year, was an exciting event which afforded me the opportunity to select from among over 650 sessions and to *mingle* with almost 6,500 people representing 145 countries. There were foreign and second language education experts offering a rich variety of papers, demonstrations, workshops, and colloquia on many different topics. There is always so much to choose from, and while I try to attend as many sessions as I possibly can in five days, I always leave a TESOL Convention wishing I could have attended even more sessions which were of interest to me, but which conflicted with other sessions which I had already chosen to attend.

This year, I decided to focus my attention on Teacher Education (TE) sessions. This is an area I am extremely interested in and which has direct application to my job in the School of Romance Languages where I am involved in pre-service and inservice training for faculty.

In this article I would like to report on three TE sessions which I found to be very helpful and informative. The three sessions I will describe are: (1) *Creative Behavior in Teacher Supervision* presented by Jerry Gebhard and Agnes Malicka, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, American Language Institute, (2) *A Developmental Approach to Inservice Teacher Education* presented by Jack Richards, City Polytechnic, Hong Kong; David Nunan and Christopher N. Candlin, both of Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia, and (3) *Teacher Education Through Action Research* presented by Henry Widdowson, Institute of Education, University of London, and Christopher Candlin.

In the *Creative Behavior in Teacher Supervision* workshop, the presenters explained that they teach a teacher supervision course at their university. They explained that they would be discussing and modeling five types of teacher supervision. They began the session by showing a videotape of an ESL teacher instructing a small group of beginning students. The teacher explains to her students that they will be interviewing each other. While she is giving instructions most of the students seem to be listening attentively. Their task is to interview as many classmates as possible. They are to ask each other the following question, "What can you do?" Before beginning the activity, the teacher tells the students some of the things that she can do, for example she can play the piano, can cook very well, etc.

Once the students begin the activity, the teacher listens and observes. Some of the students are heard to speak in their native languages to each other asking for clarification as to what their task is, others ask one another in English for clarification regarding their task and then the students are shown interviewing each other.

Following the videotape, the presenters do a role play of the first model of teacher supervision. In the roleplay the observer (supervisor) gives feedback to the teacher. An approximation of the roleplay is as follows:

> *Supervisor* - "I liked your class. The students were actively involved in the task and were finding out real information about each other which kept them interested in the activity. However, in my notes here, I realized that when the students began the task, some of them were not quite clear what they were supposed to do. My suggestion is that you write down the instructions for the students to see. Let me give you an example. You could prepare this on a transparency or hand out cards with this information:"
>
> TASK: interview each other, get up and walk around.
> REASON: to learn more about each other's talents.

The supervisor concluded the session by telling the teacher that he would observe her again in two weeks. After the role play the "supervisor" asked the "teacher" how she felt during the feedback session . Her response was, "I felt that you were telling me what and how to teach. I felt defensive. I felt you were condescending to me."

The presenters then explained that they had demonstrated **Directive Supervision** and that in this model the usual behaviors the supervisor is expected to use include directing or guiding the teacher's teaching, offering suggestions on the best way to teach, modeling teaching, advising teachers, and evaluating the teacher's teaching. They also reported that the application of this directive/prescriptive approach may be very limiting because it:

- assumes that the supervisor/observer knows what good teaching is.
- may give rise to negative feelings and possible

defensiveness and low self-esteem on the part of the teacher, and

- forces teachers to comply with what the supervisor thinks they should do. This keeps the decision making with the supervisor instead of shifting it to the teacher.

Using the same video as a point of reference, the presenters then role-played **Alternative Supervision.** The roleplay went approximately as follows:

Supervisor - "Can I describe to you what I saw?" (The supervisor then proceeded to describe in a non-judgmental way the behaviors he observed, pointing out that some of the students asked each other for clarification of the task in their native languages and in English which took up some of their time before actually practicing the language elements that were in her objective.) He then said, "I'd like to share some of the things that I do that have worked for me in giving instructions to students." The supervisor then presented these options/alternative ways of giving instructions to students:

verbal
verbal and roleplay
student paraphrases
students transcribe
students read silently

The "supervisor" then asked the "teacher" how she felt during this feedback session and she responded that as an experienced teacher she appreciated the options he had presented. and the opportunity to choose the option she wanted. She explained that perhaps for a beginning teacher though, there were too many choices and that offering only a couple of options might be more appropriate.

They then elaborated further on this model, clarifying that new teachers and some experienced teachers, prefer and expect to be directed by the supervisor. In order to meet these teacher's expectations and still allow them to participate in the decision making process, the supervisor can suggest alternatives.

The model of **Collaborative Supervision** was explained as follows. In this approach, the *supervisor is another teacher*. Some teachers appreciate open/collaborative discussions with the supervisor, i.e., the supervisor's role is to work with teachers but not direct them. Both teacher and supervisor participate in decisions that are made. Teaching decisions are thought of as problem solving processes in which teacher and supervisor brainstorm together to solve teaching issues.

Reference was made to clinical supervision as a collaborative process. This model was not roleplayed.

In **Nondirective Supervision**, the supervisor *listens* to the teacher carefully and provides a means for the teacher to reflect on his or her ideas. The presenters clarified that it is not the role of the supervisor to repeat word-for-word what the teacher has said, but rather to restate how he or she has understood the teacher's comments. The purpose of this approach is to provide an opportunity for the teacher to clarify ideas, to show support without judgment, to allow the teacher to take on responsibility for his or her own teaching. In the roleplay conducted by the presenters, the "supervisor" explains that the teacher has read her notes based on the observation (notes contain only nonjudgmental descriptions of behaviors). Also, the teacher has listened to an audio recording of the class. In the feedback session, the supervisor simply asked the teacher what she thought. The teacher then began discussing areas that were of interest to her, areas in which she would like to change. Following the roleplay, the "teacher" explained that she thought that a beginning teacher might not have enough experience to be aware of problem areas nor know of other options/alternatives.

The presenters explained that the model for **Creative Supervision** encourages supervisors to go beyond the limits of each of the above approaches. They pointed out that this could be done in a number of ways. One way is to use a combination of the above behaviors. For example, at some point during a supervisory conference the teacher may want someone to simply listen carefully to his or her ideas and to act as a "mirror" to reflect these ideas back. When this happens, the supervisor can use non-directive behaviors. At other times, the teacher may need some direction, at which time the supervisor can offer alternatives for the teacher to consider. Or, the teacher might benefit from collaboration with the supervisor, by being treated as a fellow teacher.

In their concluding remarks, the presenters encouraged peer observations as a way to effect change in teachers' behaviors. Also, they recommended that observers audio-record classes and allow teachers to listen to the recordings before the post-observation/feedback session.

The second TE session, *A Developmental Approach to Inservice Teacher Education*, was divided into two parts. The first part dealt with principles and approaches in second language teacher education and the second part dealt with specific activities in teacher education. In the first part of the workshop, Jack Richards discussed his definitions of *Training* and *Development*. Richards began his discussion by reminding those in attendance that most teacher trainers were raised on a "*training diet*" and thus present a methods-based view of teacher education which he believes is *a "teacher as idiot philosophy."* According to Richards, TE generally imposes roles and behaviors on the teacher and functions as an *"information-transmission approach"* and is *"deficiency-based."* In the current TE model, Richards asserts that we (the teacher trainers) assume we know what "good teaching" is and that teachers should be changed. He commented that the processes used to change the teachers include having the teachers model "good behaviors." Richards further remarked that in Training, the role of the teacher is that of a "technician or apprentice" and that the successful accomplishment of ends is cited by others. This, he believes, is " a limited view of teaching because it limits itself to aspects that are trainable and because the locus of responsibility lies with the teacher trainer."

In Development, Richards affirms that *"teachers rather than methods make the difference"* and that the process of forming hypotheses should play a big role. Development includes "helping teachers develop and examine their own ways of teaching and developing strategies for change." In Development, teachers are not viewed as starting out deficient: the emphasis is on what teachers know and do. Development does not start with "teachers must change," rather it is discovery-oriented and inquiry-based. Focusing on teacher Development, Richards commented, includes decision-making, the culture of teachers (concepts, values, beliefs, their own perceptions of self), their role and the role of learners, and giving teachers control. Richards concluded by making a reference to an article by Donald Freeman, "Teacher Training, Development, and Decision-Making: Model of Teaching and Related Strategies for Language Teacher Education," which was published in the *TESOL Quarterly* (March 1989).

Christopher Candlin then presented some principles for what he called InService Education and Training (INSET). Candlin began his comments by stating that INSET is most useful if it grows out of the experiences, assumptions, and perceived problems of the participants. He stated that he believes teachers attempt too much in classrooms. Teachers need to share the responsibilities with their students. Candlin further noted that the language training process should stem from the teachers and learners' own classroom experiences. INSET should focus on what is done in the language classroom: decisions, tasks, activities, i.e., teachers' decision-making processes. Innovation should be a part of INSET and should be built on what teachers know and do and what occurs in their classrooms. Candlin suggested that training should encourage a three-way *interaction and interdependence* between trainers, teachers and learners (a cooperative environment). He further remarked that INSET should include an evaluation of outcomes and effects, i.e., an evaluation of teacher education and training, and care should be taken that not only one research paradigm is applied. According to Candlin, the field of effectiveness of teacher education is not currently well researched. He offered the following as concluding remarks, INSET is an investigative process, drawing on teachers' contributions, which begins at classroom decision making and investigation and leads to problem solving.

David Nunan, the third presenter, remarked that teachers should be generating theories and hypotheses based on the input we (the teacher trainers) provide. Nunan clarified that, "It is not that our input is not important, it is just that we need to let teachers test these."

The second part of the workshop involved an examination of various teacher education activities which are described below:

> **Observation**: A procedure for keeping a record of classroom events in such a way that it can later be studied...That record does not have to be a visual one...since audio-recordings are often entirely adequate. (Allwright, 1988)
>
> **Self-monitoring:** A systematic approach to the observation, evaluation and management of one's own behavior...the process of recording information about oneself for the purposes of achieving a better understanding and control over one's behavior...self-monitoring refers to the teacher making a record of a lesson...and using the information obtained as a source of feedback on his or her teaching (Richards, in press)
>
> **Focused teaching**: Teachers prepare a lesson on a specific teaching point, teach it to their regular class and then report back on what happened.
>
> **Micro-teaching:** Presenting structured mini-lessons using specific strategies and techniques (Richards, T. C. [1990]. In T. C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.). *Second language teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press).
>
> **Case studies**: An account of a single instance of whatever it is we are investigating. We can thus have case studies of a single teacher, a single learner or a single school. (Nunan, 1989)
>
> **Investigative projects:** Investigating some aspect of teaching/learning in one's own classroom, or in the classroom of one's colleagues.
>
> **Diaries/ journals:** A first person account of a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular candid entries in a personal journal and then

analyzed for recurring patterns or salient events. (Bailey, K.M. [1990] in Richards & Nunan)

Action Research: A small scale intervention into classroom practice based on a cycle of observation, intervention documentation and evaluation. (Nunan [1990] in Richards & Nunan)

The third workshop titled *Teacher Education Through Action Research*,provided models and constructs for action research. The first presenter, Christopher Candlin, stated that action research in language teaching is relatively new and is concerned with the following constructs:

Awareness
Knowledge
Understanding
Concern
Action

The way in which teachers move through the above constructs leads to change. Candlin explained that the above items are cyclic and dynamic: He further presented specific steps for action research which are presented below:

Develop a plan
Action plan
Observe action in context
Reflect on effects
Develop further plan

He commented that the above steps are both a research and teaching activity which can be reformulated into:

Identify problem
Develop proposal
Review research
Restate problem
Formulate hypotheses
Select procedures
Choose evaluation modes
Collect data
Analyze
Interpret
Evaluate

The previous steps are not different from the initial "awareness" construct. They are just a more detailed reformulation. These steps are also cyclic.

Next he offered selection procedures of research modes and presented four types:

Psychometric
Interaction analysis
Discourse analysis
Ethnographic analysis

Action Research should:

- Begin from knowledge
- Focus on teacher concerns
- Match organism of class
- Build on natural evaluation
- Bridge gap between understanding and action
- Sharpen teacher awareness
- Provide teacher with information
- Help teacher articulate teaching and learning to class and community
- Bridge theory and practice

In his concluding remarks, the presenter noted that due to the decentralization of our curricula, we must do classroom research since we are accountable for our successes and failures in the classroom. He added that since the classroom is an organism, not a mechanism, we must therefore look at working in cycles since teaching and researching are not distinct activities, he suggested the following three stages:

- Relate behavior to ideas and concepts
- Make reference to what other teachers and researchers are doing
- Try out ideas for teacher's own self

Lastly, he presented this as a basic structure of the scheme of action research:

information / explanation (What has been said?)
demonstration (What has been done?)
application / exploration (What can you do?)

These three TE sessions offered me a tremendous amount of exciting information which has in some cases confirmed my own thoughts and experiences. For example, the *Creative Behaviors in Teacher Supervision* workshop reflected views similar to those presented in a recent Faculty and Staff workshop for superviors, "Evaluating Proficiency-Oriented Teaching." I found it reassuring to hear others espousing ideas that I believe to be true. As a teacher trainer, I greatly appreciated the opportunity to meet with other teacher trainers and discuss in small groups our experiences, successes and failures, during the various TE activities presented in the second workshop, *A Developmental Approach to Inservice Teacher Education.* Finally, in the workshop, *Teacher Education Through Action Research* I obtained models which can be applied to the language classroom as well as to the teacher training environment.

For further information or copies of the handouts given in the above-mentioned workshops contact: Deanna Tovar, ATFL-DRO-SB

Author

Deanna Tovar, Chairperson, Spanish Department B, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: foreign language teacher development, foreign language instruction.

Report from ACTFL

1990 Annual Conference of the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages

Lidia Woytak
Curriculum and Instruction

The keynote speech was delivered by Maya Angelou, the noted poet and author of several books including *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings*. Ms. Angelou, who is the Reynolds Professor of American Studies at Wake Forest University of Winston-Salem North Carolina, speaks several languages fluently including French, Spanish, Italian, Arabic, and West African Fanti. At the conference she talked about *Foreign Language Teachers and the Commitment to Excellence* to at least a thousand people who greeted her and bid farewell to her in a standing ovation. The recurring theme of her speech was the liberating power of languages. Speaking of intellectual and biological power of languages, Ms. Angelou emphasized that words infused with voice are more powerful than written and therefore she recommended: "Don't read poetry, speak poetry." She also noted that handy sayings provide evidence of collective wisdom. While describing her journey throughout Yugoslavia, she pointed out how exciting it is to learn languages and to discover how deeply they are rooted into everyday experiences. She appealed to the foreign language teachers: "Don't add mystery into learning languages!"

The following day Steven T. Laughrin-Sacco of Michigan Technological University gave an interesting presentation titled *Toward the Integration of Naturalistic Inquiry*. In his opening remarks he noted that our current knowledge of foreign language research equates that of seventeenth century medicine. Next, Laughrin-Sacco pointed out that we need an empirical eye to conduct research. He complained that the field of foreign language research is dominated by quantitative research while qualitative research is missing. He pointed out that less than ten percent of foreign language research is empirical. Laughrin-Sacco reasoned that since purely quantitative research is often misleading, foreign language educators need to promote qualitative research. He admitted that. albeit limited, quantitative method has its place in qualitative research.

Next, Loughrin-Sacco quoted statements made by Ivan Guba, also of Michigan Tecnological University, on naturalistic inquiry. According to Guba, such inquiry is entailed in any form of research conducted through observation and interviewing; naturalistic inquiry is based on the following premises:

- Study of FL acquisition in context.

- Commitment to *in situ* study.
- Active participation of learners in the description of learning processes.

Further, Laughrin-Sacco presented a design of naturalistic inquiry based on team ethnography. The components of team ethnography. design include *team selection and training, data collection and analysis, follow-up activities*, and finally, *results*. The team for his French class consisted of a *teacher, observers*, an *auditor*, and *students*. Data collection included *classroom observations, interviews, student homework*, and *teacher records* such as grades, lab sheets, etc. Data analysis included *generalizations, write-ups*, and *internal auditor*. The team conducted weekly team meetings and kept the reflexive journal. The results of the team ethnography project indicated that method carried little weight–in other words, the differences in outcome were insignificant whether method *A* or *B* was used. On the other hand, both institutional and social context as well as constraints carried considerable weight. Also, there were significant differences in responses of true versus false beginners. Finally, Laughrin-Sacco pointed out that to continue this type of research graduate students need to be trained and researchers retrained in applying naturalistic inquiry.

The session *Teacher Recruitment and Retention* was opened up by Christine Uber Grosse of Florida International University who talked about causes of teacher shortage. She gathered the information on this topic while working with David Benseler of Ohio State University on *US Directory of Foreign Language Teacher Preparation Programs*. Uber Grosse stated that there is considerable cloudiness regarding teacher shortage since there is no central data system. Next, she pointed out that Spanish dominates at the expense of other programs. Uber Grosse also stated that frequently teacher shortage is covered up by "analyzing expanding classrooms" and a high number of misassigned teachers, i.e., arts teacher assigned to teach French. Conversely, teacher shortage is also created by increased enrollments of high school students in foreign languages. Frequently, these students complete basic, intermediate, and advanced courses and they want to continue taking their language classes, but there are no teachers to guide them. As an antidote to teacher shortage, Uber Grosse recommended taking the following steps:

- Create central data of supply and demand.
- Advertise aggressively.
- Increase in-service training.
- Fight to maintain class size and, finally,
- Dare to be great!

Gabriel Valdes of Florida Department of Education stated that there exists a shortage of teachers in rural districts of Florida, while the major cities have sufficient numbers. Next, he stated that Florida Summer Institute and Teacher Referral System (TRS) conducts a teacher recruitment and retention program. Anyone who needs to get in touch with TRS may dial an 800 number (1-800-FL-TEACH).

The speakers also pointed out that although 19 universities are granting doctoral degrees in FL (theses of Ph.D. dissertations are listed by David Benseler in Modern Language Journal, database for Foreign Language Education is limited, national curriculum is needed, and problem of communication is serious.

Concluding the session, Dr. David Benseler of Ohio State University and *ALL* and *DLI* Advisory Board member, presented an excellent film which he noted has had a positive effect on student enrollment and teacher recruitment. It depicted students in graduate and undergraduate programs in typical situations in the German Department.

DLI faculty and staff also gave presentations at ACTFL 90. Namely, two presentors from DLI, Provost Ray T. Clifford and Chief of Evaluation and Research, John A. Lett, Jr., participated in the session titled *Hot Topics in Government Language Training*. Clifford talked about *Technology and FL Learning, Promises, Products, and Principles*, while Lett focused his presentation on *Learner Strategies as a Predictor of Language Learning Success*. In another session Clifford discussed *Spin-offs of the Hierarchial Nature of the ACTFL Guidelines*. Additionally, John Lett and Gordon L. Jackson of Evaluation and Research Division gave a presentation on *Building Bridges from Theory to Practice*. Next, Academic Coordinator Pat Boylan together with Military Language Instructor Kurt Mueller, both of Central European School, presented an update on *A Learning Strategies Center at the Defense Language Institute*. Supervisory Trainer Brigitta Geltrich-Ludgate of Faculty and Staff and Plans and Programs Coordinator Steven Koppany of Distant Education presented *Activities for an Effective Learning Center in the Foreign Language Curriculum*. In addition to these presentations John Lett gave a workshop on *Fundamental Principals of Evaluating and Conducting Behavioral Education Research: An Introduction for Language Teachers*. Thus, DLI contributed significantly to the Annual ACTFL 90 Conference.

Author

Lidia Woytak, Editor and Curriculum Specialist, Curriculum and Instruction, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: discourse analysis, foreign language education, curriculum development.

DLI at ACTFL

Christine M. Campbell
Evaluation and Standardization

Brigitta Geltrich-Ludgate
Curriculum and Instruction

Steven Koppany
Office of Programs and Doctrine

José A. Ortiz
School of Romance Languages

EDITOR'S NOTE: Two presentations, titled respectively *Helping Students Cope with Foreign Language Anxiety: The Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop*, and *Activities for an Effective Learning Center in the Foreign Language Curriculum* were given at the 24th Annual Meeeting & Exposition of ACTFL in Nashville, Tennessee, November 1990. *Helping Students Cope with Foreign Language Anxiety* was presented by Christine Campbell and *Activities for an Effective Learning Center in the Foreign Language Curriculum* by Brigitta Geltrich-Ludgate and Steven Koppany. The authors of these presentations provided summaries for the readers of **Dialog on Language Instruction**.

Anxiety in the Foreign Language Classroom

> I fear making a mistake when I have to speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting.
>
> I become anxious when I am being spoken to in a foreign language in a classroom setting.

Approximately 26 percent of 173 beginning students of German, Korean,Russian, and Spanish at the Defense Language Institute (DLI) agreed with the first statement above when filling out a survey about foreign language learning just before starting an intensive course; approximately 22 percent of the same students agreed with the second statement above. Two weeks later, after 60 hours of instruction, the same students reacted to the same two statements once again. Approximately 34 percent agreed with the first statement and approximately 41 percent agreed with the second statement. After spending two weeks in the course, students were, in fact, more anxiety-ridden about speaking and listening in a foreign language than *before* the course began. Our presentation at ACTFL '91 discussed anxiety as an affliction affecting beginning foreign language students at both the secondary and college level and examined strategies for combatting it in the classroom.

The authors first became interested in the topic of anxiety in the foreign language classroom after observing considerable apprehension and nervousness in students taking intensive courses in Spanish at the DLI. Often, those students who seemed to us to be the most apprehensive floundered from the start, never really grasping the simplest sounds and structures. Ultimately, these students were placed on "academic relief," i.e., expelled because of poor grades, within the first six weeks of the 25-week course.Hypothesizing that the apprehension we detected was a form of debilitating anxiety which can impede learning, we began a discussion of specific strategies for fighting anxiety in the foreign language classroom. The result of the discussions was the *Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop*, a four-hour session designed to prepare students psychologically for the challenge of learning a foreign language. In the workshop, we attempt to dispel negative myths about foreign language learning such as "You must have a special ear in order to learn a foreign language well" and help students to develop a positive, "can-do" attitude about foreign language study. The workshop, which over 300 students attended at DLI, San Francisco, in 1987, includes the following activities:[1]

1. attitudinal survey constructed by the authors–Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom (SASFLC)–to assess student anxiety levels;

2. discussion about a questionnaire entitled "The Myths and the Realities of Foreign Language Learning" based on Paul Pimsleur's renowned text *How to Learn a Foreign Language* (1980).

3. information on learning strategies specific to foreign language study;

4. exercise in building confidence, trust, and camaraderie;

5. exercise in coping with frustration;

6. discussion of the characteristics of the ideal foreign language learner.

The authors (1988) conducted a 12-month study to determine workshop effect. Below, a synopsis of the study:

Purpose and Rationale

The aim of the researchers was to determine whether the workshop would have a statistically significant effect on student attitudes, specifically, anxiety about foreign language study in the classroom setting. The authors used the SASFLC to measure the anxiety levels of 173 students of German, Korean, Russian, and Spanish at DLI.

Method

Subjects

The subjects, the majority of whom were high school graduates between 18 and 21 years of age, were divided into an experimental and a control group via randomized selection after arriving at DLI. The groups' homogeneity in aptitude and attitude was established statistically.

Materials

The authors piloted the materials with three different groups of students in three workshops before drafting the final version of the survey and exercises.

Procedures

The research schedule was as follows:

1. *Day 1:* Survey 1 administration (to determine anxiety level prior to beginning the course) to both experimental and control groups; workshop for experimental group/ registration for control group; start of the course.
2. *Day 14:* Survey 2 administration (to determine workshop effect) to both experimental and control groups.
3. *Course midpoint:* Survey 3 administration to both experimental and control groups.
4. *Course end:* Survey 4 administration to both experimental and control groups.

The methodology (in that all instructors at DLI were, and are, teaching for proficiency), instructor (here, defined as one team per input of 30 students), and course length remained constant for each language.

Results

The results were:

1. In terms of the treatment (here, the workshop), there were no statistically significant results between the experimental and the control group in a t test performed on the results of Survey 2 ($t = .1697$, $p = .8655$).[2]

2. In terms of the treatment (here, the workshop), there were no statistically significant results between the experimental and the control group in a t test performed on the results of Survey 3 ($t = .4165$, $p = .6794$).

3. Using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, reliability analysis for internal consistency in the SASFLC was .90 for the 11 items in the survey that deal directly with anxiety.

4. Although the t-test results in 1 and 2 above were not significant, the pooled percentages were quite revealing. Pooled percentages in Survey 1 showed that approximately one-third suffered from anxiety when listening and one-fourth suffered from anxiety when speaking. Pooled percentages in Survey 2 revealed that approximately one-half suffered from anxiety when listening and one-third to one-half when speaking.

The results above suggest that anxiety in the foreign language classroom is a real malady afflicting between one-fourth and one-half of the DLI students. These results are consistent with findings in the study by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) in which over one-third of the students surveyed using an instrument created by Horwitz et al.–*Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale*–indicated in the majority of items about foreign language anxiety (19 of 33 items) that they felt anxiety; over one-half of the students indicated the same in seven items. As conscientious educators, we can try, in our own way, to reduce anxiety in our classrooms by dispelling students' fears and misconceptions about foreign language study. By helping apprehensive students develop a positive, "can-do" attitude towards foreign language study at the very start of a course, we can enhance their chances of success at DLI.

Notes

1. If you are interested in seeing the workshop materials, please contact the authors at (408) 647-5391/5458.

2. The effect of the intensive foreign language course itself most likely confounded the effect of the treatment (here, the workshop).

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Authors

Christine M. Campbell, Test Project Director, Department of Evaluation and Standardization, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: anxiety in the foreign language classroom and alternative teaching models and methodologies.

José A. Ortiz, Instructor, Spanish Department, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute.Specializations: anxiety in the foreign language classroom and alternative teaching models and methodologies.

Activities for an Effective Learning Center in the Foreign Language Curriculum

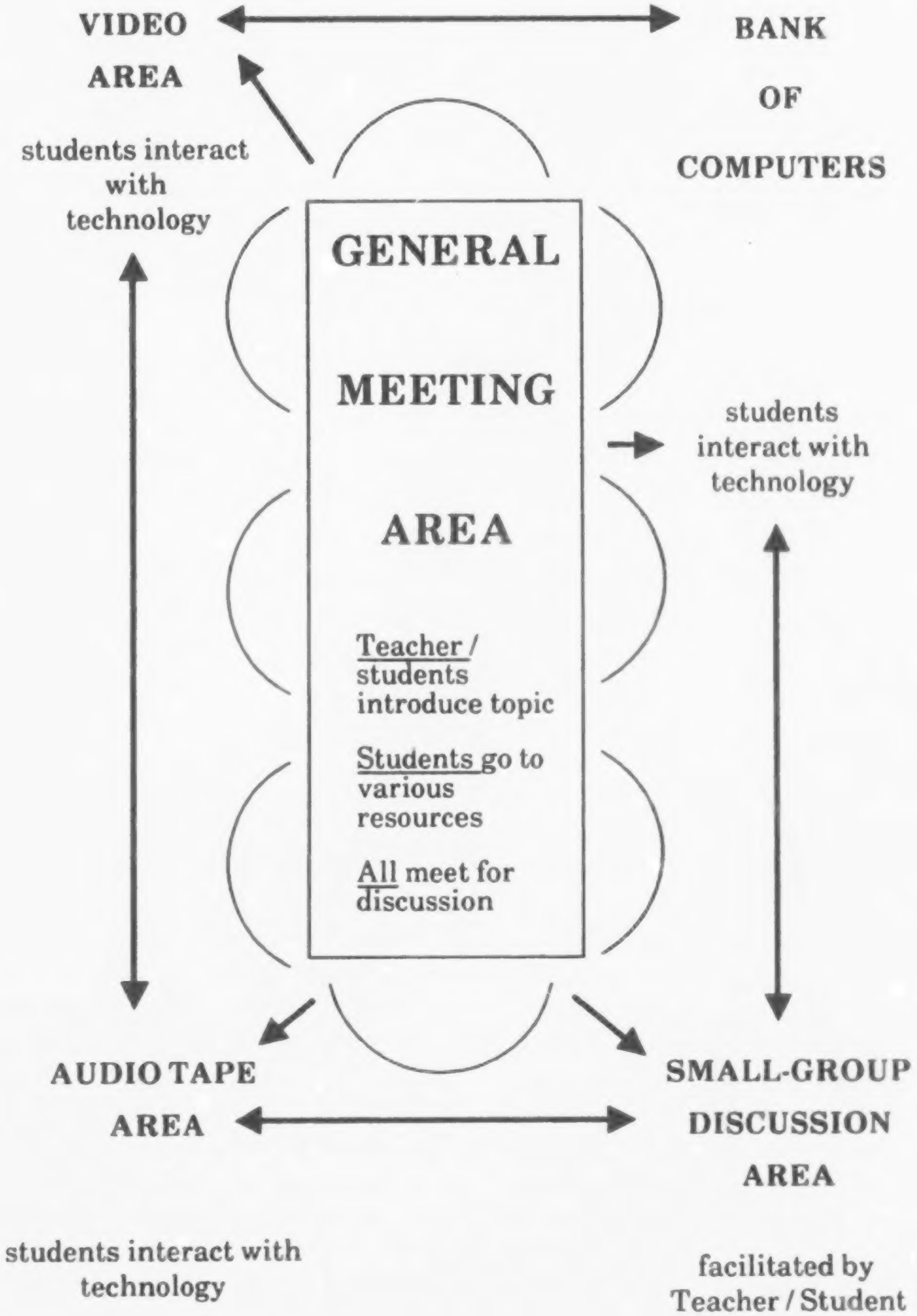
"The traditional Language Lab is out. In are Learning Centers"–was how the synopsis for the ACTFL conference program summed up the main theme of our scheduled presentation at last year's annual meeting. Coupled with the promise of participant interaction "with a variety of short proficiency-oriented authentic audio and video segments that can be used in any foreign language currilculum" and of detailed lesson plans and handouts, these two short sentences proved to be inviting enough for some 120 colleagues from around the country to come to our session and hear/see what we had to share.

We began our 1-1/4 hour session by contrasting briefly the components of a modern foreign language learning center with the characteristics of the traditional language lab/classroom, and by asking the participants to look at our presentation from the point of view of how such a learning center could be designed effectively, and why it would be preferable to the more traditional types of learning environments. At the end of the session, we promised, we would provide them with a detailed outline of our vision of an optimal learning center, *see Figure 1*.

What followed was a smorgasbord of teaching demonstrations centered around a wide array of audio and video materials that included an English-language radio report on forest fire damage in Colorado; a radio dispatch pertaining to the crash of two Hungarian military aircraft; a simulated British railroad station announcement on the arrival and departure of trains; segments from a Russian-language cartoon; selected portions of a Czechoslovak TV movie; an ABC television exerpt from a report on the military crackdown on the Chinese democracy movement; a Moscow television *Talking Head* announcement on educational opportunities; brief excerpts from a Korean-language soap opera; and a two minute clip from a documentary on crime in the Soviet Union.

Using the context of these topics, we demonstrated over twenty different lead-in strategies, tasks, and follow-up activities for which the audience was particularly grateful. In the *Aircraft Crash* segment, for example, we warmed up the group by conducting a short brainstorming session about the causes of air disasters before involving them in the actual task of processing the content of the recording.

IDEAL LEARNING CENTER


VIDEO AREA
students interact with technology
BANK OF COMPUTERS
GENERAL MEETING AREA
Teacher / students introduce topic
Students go to various resources
All meet for discussion
students interact with technology
AUDIO TAPE AREA
SMALL-GROUP DISCUSSION AREA
students interact with technology
facilitated by Teacher / Student

In the *British Railroad* demo the participants were asked, among other things, to write down all of the number phrases and reconstruct the announcement from their compiled lists in small groups. The *Military Crackdown* segment, presented with the sound turned down, involved the "students" in narrating what they were seeing on the screen, and describing a still frame, in three groups, on the descriptive, interpretive, and imaginative levels. In working with the *Korean Soap Opera* excerpt, the participants were asked to predict who the characters were, and later, to fill in the narrative between the main character and someone on the other end of the line. The *Talking Head* piece involved the attendees in a combined listening and reading comprehension task culminating in an oral group decision-making activity. In the *Soviet Crime* segment, presented last using both audio and video recordings, the participants had a chance to guess what would happen next, make cultural comparisons, engage in roleplay, etc. As our final group activity we had planned to show two American television commercials and have the audience design lead-in, task, and follow-up activities for classroom presentation, but were forced to forego this due to time limitations and lively feedback and questions from the participants between and during our demonstrations.

The main topics we were asked to address included the roles of the students and teacher in the activities presented; the elements of a proficiency-oriented classroom; learning styles and strategies; the treatment of authentic but controversial materials; availability of authentic texts, and the production of simulated authentic materials; and the role of computers in all of this.

In conclusion, we handed each participant a schematic layout of what in our opinion was an effective modern learning center, and returned to our original question: "Why learning centers?" The following were some of the responses we received:

- learning centers provide the teacher and students with more options;
- they better facilitate the type of dynamic, integrated, and multi-media approach we had just illustrated;
- they better lend themselves to replicating real life, and they address a variety of learning styles.

While some of those present questioned the rationale behind aiming for such "expensive solutions" in this time of budgetary cutbacks and belt-tightening, most colleagues enthusastically shared our vision of the (near?) future.

Authors

Brigitta Geltrich-Ludgate, Branch Chief of Education Technology: Faculty and Staff, Curriculum and Instruction, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: technology applications in second language learning, faculty training, second language acquisition research and curriculum design.

Steven Koppany, Plans and Programs Coordinator, Distance Education Division, Office of Programs and Doctrine, Defense Language Institute. Specializations: faculty training, technology applications in foreign language learning.

The ILR Oral Proficiency Interview

Ilsoon Shin
Korean School

The oral proficiency interview is now used by approximately thirty government agencies which comprise the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR). The interview was originally developed in the 1950's and has been refined over a period of thirty years. The interview is used to determine the functional language ability of candidates for thousands of government positions that require knowledge of a foreign language.

The Purpose of Oral Proficiency Testing

The objective of the language proficiency test is to determine the level of the student's language skill compared to the skill of a native speaker of the target language, regardless of how or where this knowledge was acquired. This is not a pass-or-fail test. The student's proficiency is rated on a scale of 0 through 5 and becomes a matter of official record. Proficiency level descriptive summaries are presented below:

Proficiency Level Summaries (Speaking)

Level 0	utters occasional isolated words; does not have functional ability
Level 0 +	lists words/phrases; communicates with memorized material; uses "telegraphic ten desperate questions"
Level 1	creates sentences; functions with language; particpates in short conversations; satisfies basic survival needs; asks and answers questions; can be understood by native speakers; used to dealing with foreigners
Level 2	discourses in paragraphs; speaks with confidence participates in conversations about background and everyday life; narrates in past, present, and future; describes a situation with complications; gives instructions or directions; relates current events; can be understood by native speakers not used to dealing with foreigners.
Level 3	converses informally and formally about concrete and abstract topics; hypothesizes and supports opinions; discusses unfamiliar situations.
Level 4	tailors language (registers); persuades, advises, convinces; exhibits no pattern of grammatical errors.
Level 5	speaks as well as an educated native speaker

The following agencies have approved ILR Level Descriptions:

- Department of Defense
- Department of State
- Central Intelligence Agency
- National Security Agency
- Department of the Interior
- National Institutes of Health
- National Science Foundation
- Department of Agriculture
- Drug Enforcement Administration
- Federal Bureau of Investigation
- ACTION/Peace Corps
- Agency for International Development
- Office of Personnel Management
- Immigration and Naturalization Service
- Department of Education
- U.S. Customs Service
- U.S. Information Agency
- Library of Congress

Nature of the Oral Interview

The oral interview is a face-to-face test of a candidate's foreign language speaking ability when talking to two certified testers for a period of 10 to 40 minutes. Proficiency is the measure of how well one uses the language at a given time, not how well an individual learned all the material in the course.

How Is the Language Interview Conducted?

The interview is a structured conversation that enables the tester to determine what the student can do and what the student cannot do when speaking the language. The six language features considered when rating the speaking proficiency level of an examinee are: *pronunciation, proficiency/integrative, sociolinguistic/culture, grammar, vocabulary*, and *tasks*. Since the object of the interview is the assessment of language proficiency, a ratable sample must be obtained from the speaker. It follows, therefore, that each question posed by the tester must have a purpose. Structured questioning not only shortens the length of the interview, but improves the sample, thus allowing the tester to evaluate proficiency accurately. To ensure that questioning is structured, the interview is divided into four phases: *warm-up, level check, probes*, and *wind-down*. Such a structure avoids purposeless questioning that lengthens the interview and generally results in an unratable sample.

The *warm-up* is designed to put the speaker at ease and if necessary, to reacquaint him/her with the target language. It consists of social amenities and very simple conversation, including salutations and introductions. The warm-up is concluded when the interviewer has obtained a preliminary indication of the student's level and when the student seems relaxed and comfortable with the testing situation.

The *level check* provides information regarding what the speaker can do. It is designed to find the highest level of proficiency within the level currently being checked. Its purpose is to verify the estimate of level obtained at the end of the warm-up. During this stage the tester checks a number of topics for content and vocabulary, listens for fluency, and assesses pronunciation and grammatical accuracy. When the speaker is able to perform the functions of the estimated level with suitable accuracy and content, the solid floor of successful performance has been established. This floor represents what the speaker can do consistently.

Probes provide information regarding what the speaker cannot do. In contrast to the level check, which a speaker can do consistently, thus determining the floor of the performance, probes are used to find the ceiling for rating. The probe stage takes the student above the sustained level several times in different ways, exploring a variety of contexts as well as a variety of functions. The objective is to test the speaker to the highest level of proficiency. When the speaker can no longer communicate effectively, this objective has been realized and the testing part of the interview is complete.

The *wind-down* is designed to return the speaker to the level at which he/she functions most accurately. This is done to provide the speaker with a feeling of accomplishment at the close of the interview. The tester often returns briefly to a topic discussed previously and on which the speaker had been able to converse with a considerable degree of confidence and ease. The interview generally ends, as it began, with the appropriate social amenities.

During the course of the interview, testers are faced with the task of generating questions appropriate to various stages of the interview and, concurrently, appropriate to the student's apparent level of language proficiency. They prepare questions suitable to each level before the interview. The questions can be modified as the interview progresses, according to the information that the tester is gathering about the speaker.

In addition to following a question/answer pattern, speakers are asked to role-play situations with the interviewer for levels 1 and above. These roleplays are designed to give the speaker an opportunity to demonstrate how well he/she can get into, through, and out of the situation that one might normally encounter when using the language. They require that the speaker ask questions, sustain a conversation and, at higher levels, deal with complications.

There is a two-tiered system of tests. The lower range tests measure Levels 0-3, according to the Interagency Language Roundtable Skill Level Description. The upper range tests measure levels 3-5. Level 0 indicates no functional ability and Level 0+ shows ability to satisfy immediate needs using rehearsed utterances. In order to graduate from Defense Language Institute, the student must attain Speaking Level 1 and above in the Cryptologic Training System (CTS), and Level 2 and above in the General Intelligence Training System (GITS). For a list of tasks leading to the attainment of levels 1, 2, and 3 respectively, see *Appendix*.

Functions of Oral Proficiency Tests

When a government agency interviews candidates for positions requiring foreign language skills, it will assess the candidate's language abilities by means of the ILR language skill level. The government requires personnel who can understand the spoken foreign language well enough to comprehend foreign language radio and television broadcast as well as face-to-face conversations with foreign government officials or the ordinary citizen on the street. The government also needs officials who are able to represent its commercial, cultural and foreign policies in speaking who are able to persuade, counsel, or negotiate high-level agreements in the foreign language.

Foreign language instructors who are aware of the important role of oral proficiency have realized that this area must be evaluated with reliable and valid testing techniques. Such techniques provide a common standard that can be applied to all students, regardless of institution, level of study, or type of curriculum. Furthermore, they describe proficiency in terms that explain what students can actually say in the foreign language. This kind of analysis provides valuable information to the instructor, the student, and prospective employers.

Appendix

Speaking Ability: Level 1

Be able to:

1. Get a room in a hotel.
2. Get a taxi; talk with the driver.
3. Make a reservation for dinner.
4. Respond appropriately to simple questions at customs.
5. Use appropriate greetings and social cliches.
6. Cash a check and change money.
7. Find out departure and arrival times of city transportation.
8. Count to 100.
9. Arrange a meeting with someone at a specific place, date, and time.
10. Ask for at least eight different foods and three different drinks in a restaurant.
11. Ask directions to something inside a building and in a city.
12. Make simple introductions.
13. Make simple descriptive statements about your background.
14. Report a car breakdown and request help.
15. Ask how to get in touch with the American Embassy or police.
16. Buy a newspaper, magazine, stamps, and basic food items.
17. Get people to restate things more simply.
18. Use common telephone phrases.
19. Identify the names of the days of the week and months of the year.

Speaking Ability: Level 2

Be able to:

1. Handle in more detail and with greater facility all of the situations in which a level 1 speaker can perform.
2. Ask a person for information about himself/herself, such as family status, residence, current employment, background and interests.
3. Describe your daily routine and talk about your interests.
4. Describe a person, an object, or a place.
5. Tell about a sequence of events that happened to him/her or to someone else.
6. Tell about a movie or television program he/she has recently seen or a book or magazine article recently read.
7. Tell about news events in simple factual terms, even though you may be missing some of the key vocabulary.
8. Tell about plans for an upcoming event, such as a trip or vacation.
9. Urge someone to do something that person may be a little reluctant to do, such as getting luggage after closing hours of the baggage area.

Speaking Ability: Level 3

Be able to:

1. Converse informally and formally about concrete and abstract topics.
2. Hypothesize.
3. Support opinion.
4. Communicate in an unfamiliar situation.

Author

Ilsoon Shin, Program Coordinator, Korean School, Defense Language Institute. Specialization: foreign language education.

Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: References. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrate format for bibliographic entries.

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 16 (1)*, pp. 93-95.

Harris, D.P. (1969). *Testing English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and, when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g. (Jones, 1990, pp. 35-112). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Notes should be used for substantive information only, and each note should be typed directly below the line to which it refers. They should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript, and subsequently they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes*.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids, or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1 1/4 inch on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title of the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An author's name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLI), and specializations would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

> Jane C. Doe, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St, Madison, WI 55306. Specializations: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the Xerox 6085 which is available in all Schools and Directorates. Users of the Xerox may contact Ani Frazier (5656) for information on using the footnote option as well as information on using tabs for bibliographic style. Authors should submit both a floppy disc and a paper copy of the manuscript. If the manuscript is produced on a computer other than a Xerox, the file should be downloaded as an ASCII file for submission on floppy.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed., 1983) available from the American Psychological Association, 1200 17th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036.

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their name on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3" x 5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DCI-C (Editor), Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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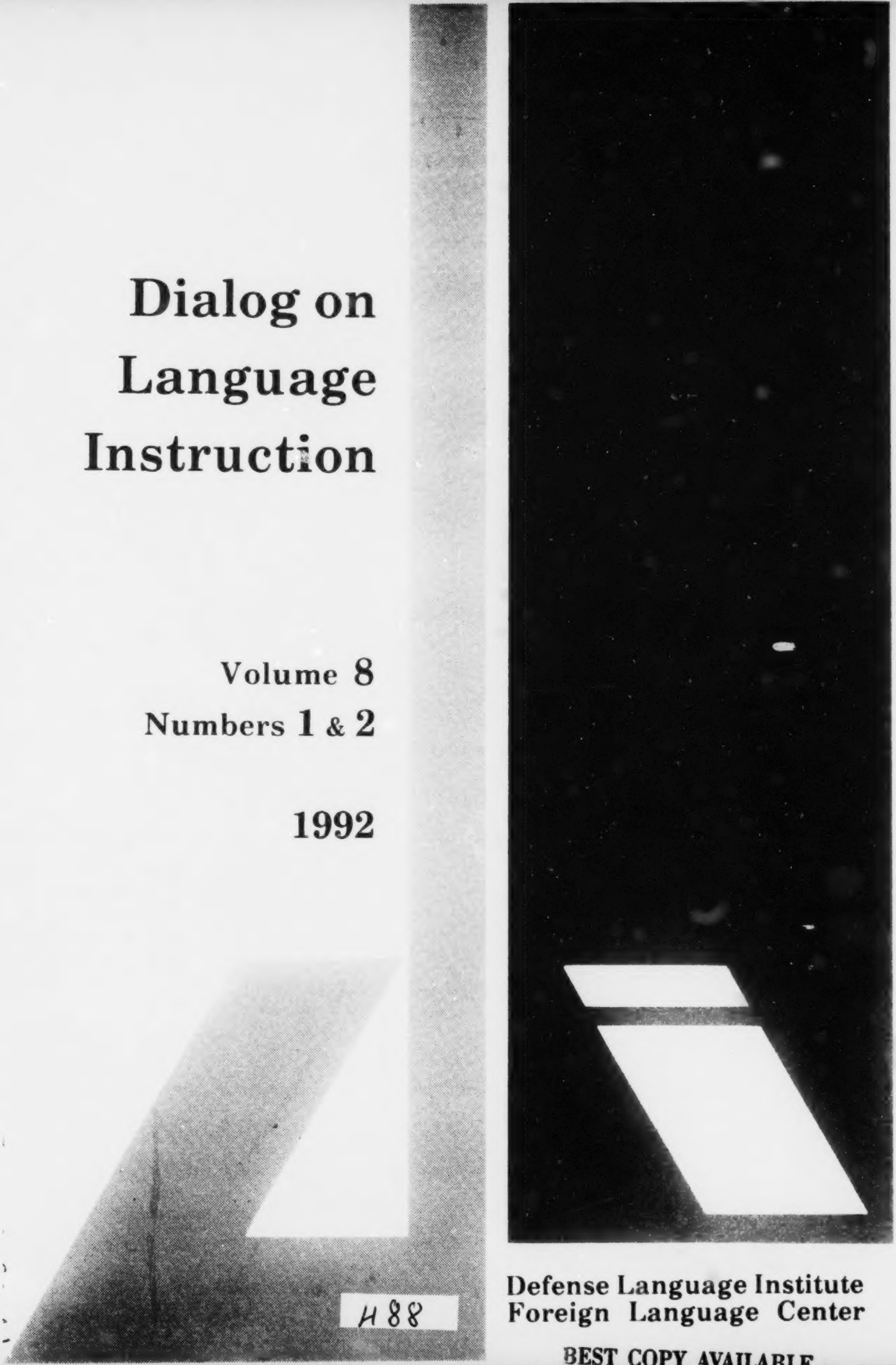

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DIALOG ON LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

1992 • Volume 8 • Numbers 1 & 2

DIALOG ON LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION is an occasional internal publication of the Defense Language Institute and part of its professional development program. Its primary function is to promote professional dialog by increasing opportunities to share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff and by encouraging professional communication within the world - wide Defense Language Program.

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COL Donald C. Fischer, Jr., Commandant
Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center
ATFL: DCI - C
ATTN: Editor, *Dialog on Language Instruction*
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944 - 5006

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Editor
Lidia Woytak

Production Editor
Jack Boyd

Cover Design
Barney Inada

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Bundessprachenamt

INTERVIEW with JOSEF ROHRER

Bundessprachenamt

Lidia Woytak
Defense Language Institute

Josef Rohrer, Head of Language Training at the *Bundessprachenamt* and Chairman of the Bureau for International Language Coordination, is an outstanding foreign language educator. He is the author of several books and a number of articles dealing with such issues as the role of memory in learning processes, culture in foreign language learning, and curriculum development.

In 1982 Josef Rohrer published a book titled *Zur Rolle des Gedächtnisse beim Sprachenlernen* ("On the Role of Memory in Language Learning") followed by several articles, among them "Toward Communicative Skill-Oriented Language Courses" (1985), "From Communicative to Cultural Competence" (1987), "Non-Linear Elements in Learning and Retention" [1989], *Vermutungen über das Sprachenlernen: Ergebnisse eines Selbstversuchs* ("Language Learning Assumptions: Results of a Self-Administered Test" [1989]), and *Gedächtnis und Sprachenlernen aus neuropädagogischer Sicht* ("Memory and Language Learning—a Neuropedagogical View" [1990]).

The Defense Language Institute invited Josef Rohrer in February 1991 While at DLI, the Chairman of BILC discussed a variety of topics with the German faculty, staff, and students. Our guest from the *Bundessprachenamt* also addressed the DLI faculty on the topic of the relationship of memory and language learning. Finally, the distinguished visitor agreed to be interviewed for *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

W: Good afternoon, Herr Rohrer and welcome to DLI. For the past two days, you have been visiting the German department. Would you like to tell us a little bit about your visit there?

R: Yes, in fact I have been doing two things. On Monday I had a discussion with three members of the staff, one French gentleman and two American ladies. We talked about memory, the role of memory in language learning, and certain strategies that might enable us to use our brain more efficiently than we normally do. And on Tuesday I visited several German classes.

W: Before we go on to issues concerning memory, would you say a few words about your visit with the German classes?

R: Certainly. I visited them yesterday and we discussed problems which the two institutions share. Your population here is young soldiers, officers too. In Germany, as you probably know, the word *soldier* is a generic term; thus a general is a soldier; so when I say *soldier* I mean it in the German sense. The DLI students are fairly young, and, I have the impression they are beginning their careers in the army, whereas we take in people not only from the armed forces but also anybody who is in public service in Germany. They can come to our school to learn one of approximately thirty languages that we teach. Therefore, our population is older; on the average, I would think they could be something like thirty-five. The oldest student we have at the moment is 67.

W: Don't you think he's pretty old for a student?

R: Well, for a student he is pretty old, but there is a general misconception, at least in most cultures that I know of, about the role of age in learning and retention. It is obvious that the human brain changes as it becomes older; not for the worse, but usually for the better. However, people don't want to believe that; they usually think that when they are over fifty or sixty, or maybe even sixty-five, there is this magical limit (at 65 in the public service in Germany employees have to retire.) There are exceptional circumstances in which the government can ask a civil servant to stay. There is this idea that at sixty-five you have to go because you are old. I understand that in America in the public service this is different. However, the neurological age seems to be roughly seventy-five, statistically speaking. At this age your cerebral faculties, the mental faculties, begin to deteriorate, in a healthy brain.

W: Unfortunately or fortunately, many of us will get to this point ... You were talking about two different populations at the *Bundessprachenamt* and DLI. Could you point out to us what the two institutions have in common?

R: The *Bundessprachenamt* and DLI have the same objectives: we teach languages, you teach languages. We have about the same number of languages that we teach and we are, in Europe, the largest state institution of the kind, as DLI is the largest in the United States, or in the world. There are very few institutions like this: There is DLI in California, there is the FSI in Washington, and there is our *Bundessprachenamt* in Germany. However, the *Bundessprachenamt* is much smaller than DLI. We have an average intake of 700-750 students at any one time. That is our capacity at the moment. It may grow in the future because Germany has grown.

W: Yes, undoubtedly.

R: There are roughly one-third more now. So, of course there is some growth involved, and undoubtedly it will have some impact on the *Bundessprachenamt.*

W: Would you like to describe your curriculum at the *Bundessprachenamt*?

R: We have no curriculum, in the sense of a prescriptive teaching plan. The teachers themselves are responsible for their curricula. I must explain that we employ professional teachers who go through an examination when they are employed; they must give a teaching demonstration, plus an interview, and must write an essay on some aspect of language teaching. They must, of course, prove that their command of the language is appropriate and adequate. We expect teachers to do a professional job without being supervised; they know what the aims are and what the students have to achieve. They know what the examinations are like, and we leave it to them to achieve this end with the group they have. Groups are always different, so teachers have to prepare their own materials. We do not prescribe any textbooks. We do not produce textbooks; we used to, but we have given up, absolutely, forever. So we leave it entirely to a teacher. What we give him is a fact book in which he can see how to prepare his own material. A teacher has to prepare his own material. My philosophy is that if you have prepared your own material, it is going to be successful, even if it's poor. I've never heard of the writer of a textbook who couldn't teach his own textbook. Nobody else can, but he can. He believes in it, and identifies himself with everything that he has prepared, and the students realize that. That's the important point.

W: Throughout the years of your work at the *Bundessprachenamt*, you devoted a lot of research to the role of memory in foreign language learning. Could you tell us a little about memory?

R: Take a look at *Figure 1.* It shows in simplified form the cerebral processes that we call memory. Apparently, the main task of our memory is to protect our brain from information. This is understandable in view of the mass of information that would crowd our brain without protection from the so-called sensory filters. Keeping away and filtering out information that is not needed or is no longer needed — that is, forgetting — seems to be

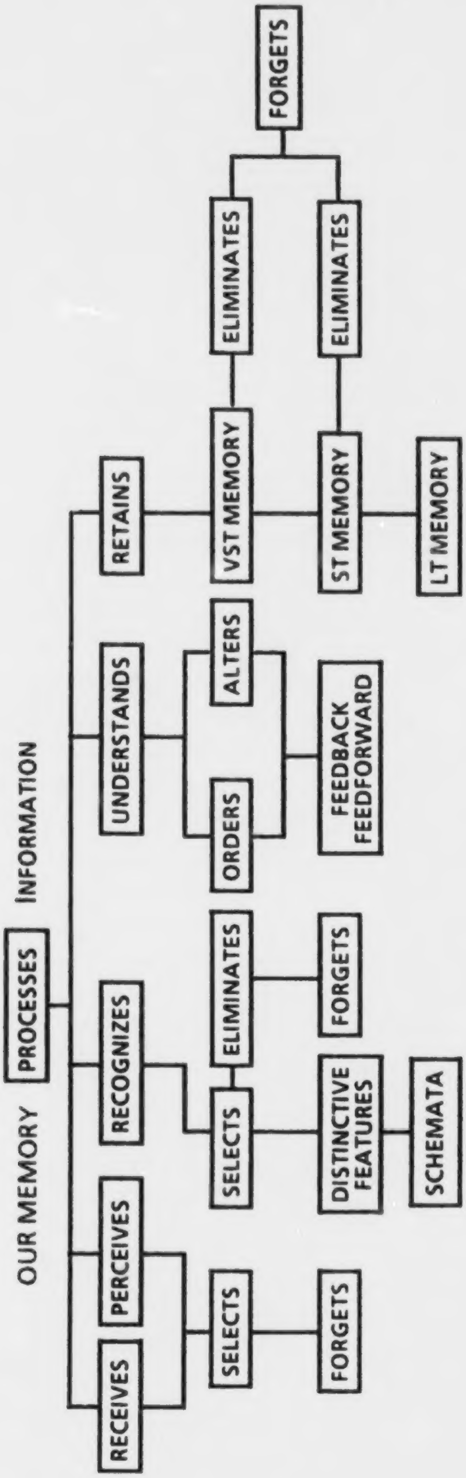
OUR MEMORY
PROCESSES
INFORMATION
RECEIVES
PERCEIVES
RECOGNIZES
UNDERSTANDS
RETAINS
SELECTS
SELECTS
ELIMINATES
ORDERS
ALTERS
VST MEMORY
ELIMINATES
FORGETS
DISTINCTIVE FEATURES
FORGETS
FEEDBACK FEEDFORWARD
ST MEMORY
ELIMINATES
SCHEMATA
LT MEMORY
FORGETS

FIGURE 1
Cerebral Processes

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one of the survival techniques that are mastered by our brain. Subjectively, however, we would say that the main task of memory is to store information that the brain considers important. In this context we should not forget that information retained by the brain is always subject to cybernetic changes; that is, present information is changed through new information and new information through present information. This means that memory is not static, but dynamic; it is not a state, but a process.

W: A well-known English physiologist, W. Grey Walter (1966), made similar observations about memory. He stated:

> It is not a thing, but a process. Not a coin lying on a table, but a candle burning on an altar. Since it is dynamic, this means of storing information opens the way to action. And since it has a frequency, it can be numerically evaluated (p. 176).

R: I like this statement very much. However, the word *storing*, I don't like.

W: Yes. it's too mechanical.

R: It's not dynamic at all. A storeroom is anything but dynamic. Memory, on the other hand, is a process. There's nothing static, you couldn't find anything lying around in the brain, it's all moving. Well, there are conjectures which are really very difficult to explain; I'm not a physiologist, and I find it difficult. I have a feeling that I'm beginning to understand how it might work. However, it is very often difficult to convey such knowledge as one has. Words often fail, you see.

W: What is the function of memory?

R: The natural task of our memory is to make sure that the body for which the brain is responsible survives as long and as comfortably as possible. For most people, survival does not depend on whether they know languages other than their mother tongue. Our brain usually has a hard time learning and retaining things that are not important for survival. When things have to be learned that are important for survival, our brain can deal with highly complex matters. Thus, when somebody sees the sign FALLING ROCK he would not say that he did not understand the warning implied because he had forgotten that, according to the law of gravity, a piece of falling rock could cause damage; nor would he claim that he had forgotten why the authorities had put up the sign.

W: Could you tell us what areas of pedagogy are currently of greatest interest to you?

R: The major problem to me now is—I'm going to mention this later in my lecture—is, can a teacher brain get a student brain to learn? Is there such a thing as a learner brain? Does a learner brain depend on the teacher brain to stimulate learning? This presupposes, doesn't it, that the teacher brain knows how learning takes place.

W: It is a misconception, actually. Very often the teacher's brain does not know.

R: No teacher's brain knows. Unfortunately, we don't know. On the one hand you have the conscious brain, and on the other hand the unconscious. Most of the brain is unconscious. I am not conscious of what my brain is doing now, although I know that it is measuring all sorts of processes in my body.

W: Herbert W. Seliger addresses this problem of the conscious and subconscious work of the brain in the chapter titled "Processing Universals in Second Language Acquisition" (1984). His model of processing consists of two levels:

> The first level of processing, *strategy*, is a biological, constant, learning process used by all human beings in all learning environments and consists of the abstract unconscious formulation of cognitive questions in the form of hypotheses attempting to relate new material to already established cognitive structures. The second level of processing, *tactic*, consists of specific responses in specific learning environments. Some tactics provide data from which strategies may derive underlying principles or rules of the language system while other tactics do not engage the hypothesis-formation process at the level of strategy. The selection of tactics is affected by both the language learning environment and the learner's filter, which determines what in the possible universe of language data is selected for attention and learning (p. 47).

R: Yes. This is a possible model. It's just an attempt to explain it and to understand what it is. That's what we always do. We build models, you see, to try to understand better, but they are never realities. We don't have strategies in our brain, we don't have tactics; we don't have filters; we don't have anything in our brain that resembles the models that we use to explain how it functions. That's why we have all sorts of metaphors; we think of the brain as a computer, for example. It is the brain that does that, it is the brain that tells itself that it is like the product that it has produced, which is, of course, wrong.

W: It's too mechanistic.

R: It's much too mechanistic. Let's put it this way: to explain the way it functions, the brain always chooses the most complicated machine that it has invented so far. Now it is the computer, maybe in twenty years it'll be something else.

W: Is the brain the only organ involved in learning and retention?

R: On the contrary, our whole organism is involved in learning and retention. In *Figure 2* I have given some examples of the simplest forms of interplay between body and mind.[1] It seems to me that there are some conclusions to be drawn. One of the most obvious is that we must supply our body with sufficient oxygen. This is because our brain, which weighs about 1,500 g, i.e., two percent of our body's weight, uses 20 percent of the oxygen supplied. Why the brain uses so much oxygen becomes clear when we consider the amount of "electrical equipment" housed in the neocortex; about 100 billion neurons interconnected by a network of axons 16,000 km in length. During a lifetime this system processes information in the amount of approximately 2.8×10^{20} bits, an astronomical figure. It is very interesting to note that apparently only 0.02 percent of the brain's work consists in receiving and emitting information, while 99.08 percent of its work consists in processing and storing information—in other words, in learning and retention. In view of these figures we may ask ourselves whether in our schools teaching and individual learning are in reasonable proportion. The simple question is whether we leave our brain enough time to learn. After all, learning is a task that the brain must do largely autonomously. Could it be that less might be more?

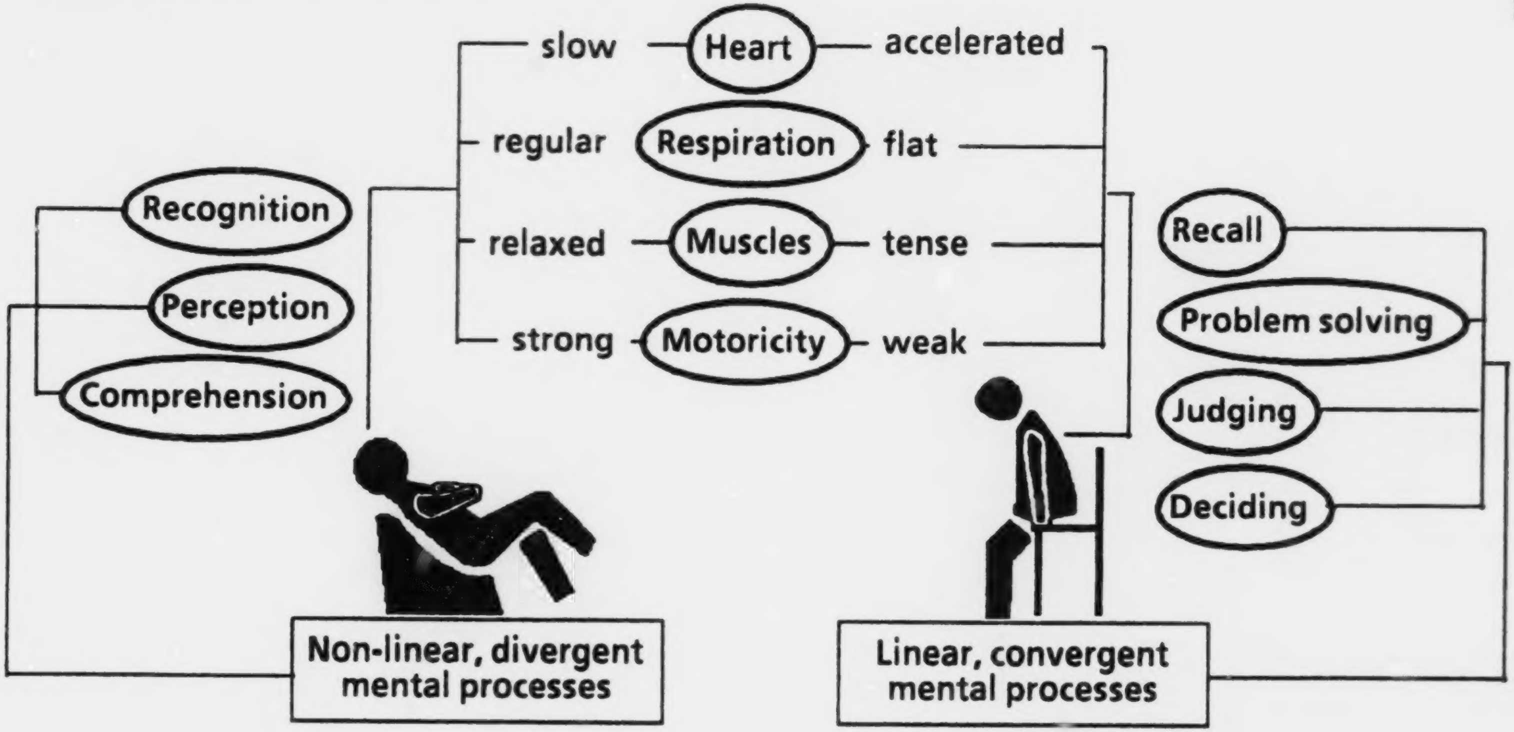
W: Actually, according to some people, over 90 percent of our brain is not utilized at all.

R: Yes. There are even more exact figures. I don't know, I mistrust those exact figures. But there are neurologists who say that about four percent of our brain potential is used at this moment in evolution. Whether this is true or not, I don't know. What they refer to is mental activities. But what are mental activities in the final analysis?

W: Should we teach our brain how to learn?

R: It's not necessary. Every brain is born with the ability to learn and we don't have to teach it how to learn; it learns. If we are lucky, we can help it, maybe, to do it better. However, we can also handle it in a wrong way. We can make it more difficult for the

FIGURE 2
Examples of Interplay Between Body and Mind


slow
Heart
accelerated
regular
Respiration
flat
relaxed
Muscles
tense
strong
Motoricity
weak
Recognition
Perception
Comprehension
Recall
Problem solving
Judging
Deciding
Non-linear, divergent mental processes
Linear, convergent mental processes

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brain. In many classrooms, the teacher's job seems to be to make it more difficult for the students.

W: How can we improve the situation?

R: Every learner should be told the few essential things that we now know about learning and retention. This knowledge should enable him to look into himself and to listen to himself while he is learning. The learners should be encouraged to develop retention exercises on their own .

W: Could you say a few words about retention exercises?

R: Retention exercises should present the learning material synoptically. The efficiency of mindmaps or clusters is increased if each map or cluster has its own iconicity which can be retained as such.

W: Could you tell us about the distinction you made between schematic and episodic memory?

R: Our schematic memory is based on what some psychologists call scripts. The script is what we learn with great ease. For example, we know without having to be taught that when it rains the water will collect and plants will grow. These are scripts. There are many very complicated scripts that we are surrounded by, that we have in ourselves, which we learn without any effort. Our schematic memory has no retention problems.

W: How about our episodic memory?

R: Our episodic memory is the memory for things that are detailed in the general setup of things which we do not need to know in order to survive. For example, our survival doesn't depend on whether we know that A plus B squared is A squared plus 2AB plus B squared. Therefore our episodic memory tends to forget it. My hunch is that all school learning is of this type. School learning is learning things that you don't need.

W: Right. That's what my daughter said yesterday.

R: She's right.

W: She had a geometry assignment, and said, "I don't know why I'm doing this. I'll never use it in my life anyway."

R: She won't use it. You won't use it. Then, of course, you can tell her "It's good for your brain," but you don't know if that is true. Your daughter is quite right, you see, and every human being is right when he or she says "I have no use for this." I think that 99 percent of all our learning is effortless learning, learning which we are not aware of, which the brain does because the brain needs it to allow the body for which it is responsible to survive. That is the brain's responsibility, which also means that if the brain recognizes that another communication system, like a foreign language, needs to be learned in a given circumstance, then, it seems to me as far as my experience goes, the brain, that is the human being, does this very quickly. If your life depends on it, you will probably learn German or English or Russian in no time.

W: Very quickly.

R: This hasn't been researched from this aspect. There have been people who have learned languages, foreign languages very, very quickly, because they had to.

W: I've heard that immigrants, for example, quickly learn to talk about prices, money, and purchases. That's one area which they address first. And this would tie in with fulfilling, meeting survival needs.

R: Yes. I remember people, Germans who had to emigrate in the '30s. I'm thinking of one Berlin Jew who was a journalist. His whole life depended on his ability to write. But he had no English language skills when he came to England in 1935 or 1936. I can't remember the man's name, but I can see his face. He's now a very old man; I think he's still alive. In no time he wrote for the *Times*. There have been other cases of German lawyers who emigrated to America and became lawyers. Being a lawyer means using language, and using it very cleverly. I have met others, at Princeton for example, German professors who, even after thirty years in the country spoke very little English. Their lives did not depend on it.

W: They didn't need it.

R: They were scientists; they were respected for what they knew in the field of mathematics or physics, etc. Since they could make themselves understood, they did not need to learn the language properly.

W: In other words, you are saying that you have to be motivated to learn a language.

R: There has to be motivation. Now, people analyze motivation and speak of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. I don't like to analyze motivation. At the moment I am learning the Thai language. There's no survival problem involved. It's just that at my age I want to prove that I can still learn a new language. I have chosen one of the most inaccessible languages there is. Inaccessible in the sense that there is very little learning material; the language has hardly ever been properly described. There's no detailed description of the grammar.

W: We've been teaching Thai at DLI.

R: Yes, I don't know how they do it here. I know that in Europe, this language is still virtually inaccessible, and I want to access it. I want to do it, this is my ambition. There is a very strong driving force: vanity. I want to show that I can do it, that I can learn this very, very difficult language, a tone language, and that I can do it at my age. And that I can do it just as well as anybody else, or maybe even better. This is a kind of personality thing also, you see.

W: You may invent a new system of how to learn a new language; just like American linguists of the '50s were learning Indian languages without grammars and dictionaries and in the process they were able to come up with a description.

R: Indeed. There's one other thing and this is a curious factor, that very few language teachers, after they have been teaching for, let's say, twenty or thirty years, have ever gone into the business of learning a new language in order to expose themselves to the same experience that their students have every day. And even fewer have ever written about this.

W: You are making a very good point, because if you have native speakers teaching a language, they have no understanding as to what the learner is going through to become proficient.

R: There are teachers who with advancing age become more and more impatient with their students. Even when they are not teaching their mother tongue but, for example, as in Germany or Poland, a foreign language. English teachers in Poland typically are the ones who have learned English as a foreign language. They have learned it so well that, after a time, they begin to lose contact with the student's mental reality. For that reason, I think, teachers should be formally required, after ten or twenty years, to sit down and study a new language properly and be examined, and also they should be required to write about their experience.

W: Has it been done in the past?

R: Two or three people have done that. I found two or three articles about such experiences. In one case even a famous applied linguist, at Harvard ...

W: Wilga Rivers?

R: Yes, Wilga Rivers published a book some ten, fifteen years ago in which she wrote about her experience learning either French or Spanish. Actually, for an American, these are rather simple languages to learn. Actually, you get a lot more insight if you learn a language that is not related.

W: From a different group.

R: Yes, like where a German learns Thai, Chinese, Japanese, or Korean.

W: Or even Slavic languages.

R: They are also very closely related. I looked at Russian and Polish and concluded that it is not difficult for someone who knows something about the structure of languages to learn these languages. It is, of course, difficult for a German who has never learned another language to learn Polish or French because of the *foreignness* of another language, any other language.

W: Right.

R: However, for a German who knows what languages are like and how they function, it's not too difficult to learn Russian. This experience is, I think, very important. I can send you an article I wrote very shortly after I started learning Thai in 1989, after six or seven weeks.

W: If the information is old the brain shuts off automatically. There has to be new information for the brain to absorb it ...

R: New and interesting.

W: You also point out in your articles that one doesn't learn a language for language's sake, but for a specific purpose. Whenever one wants to enjoy reading a good novel, or obtain specific information, language is just a tool.

R: It's a means, but not an end. But in the school setting in Europe, that's the problem school children have when they learn a foreign language. Language is the means and the end at the same time. They learn English or French for the sake of learning the language or in order to be able to go through school and pass their final examinations, which may be motivation enough on the whole, because they want to get good grades.

W: Maybe in the beginning you have to teach language for language's sake. What's your opinion: to what degree would you allow mechanistic drills in language instruction, if any, or would you avoid them totally?

R: No, I wouldn't avoid them at all.

W: You wouldn't?

R: No, not at all. I would be happy, personally, if I had the kind of pattern drills in Thai now that I produced in English and French twenty, twenty-five years ago when pattern drills were in vogue. Unfortunately, they were called mechanistic and stupid; Such drills are no longer used or are used very little. They were discredited because something new came up. Every ten years or so there is something new that comes up, as if the human being had suddenly discovered how the brain learns. We know one thing, however: repetition is a very important factor in learning; that's why drills are so important.

W: A Soviet psychologist Alexei A. Leontiev views repetition and reproduction as processes. In his book titled *Psychology and the Language Learning Process* (1981), he writes: "Reproduction is neither automatic nor mechanical. We reenact special analytical synthetic procedures in which thought plays its part" (p. 56). So, really, very little mechanical ...

R: "Mechanical" is certainly the wrong term to apply to anything that goes on in the brain: It is certainly the wrong metaphor. We are always tempted, especially when we speak disparagingly of certain processes, to say it's repetitive, it's mechanical. However, I wondered, when I was starting to learn Thai, how often do I need to hear, to repeat, either internally or externally, the Thai words; not syntax, so much, because too little is known about Thai syntactical structures. There are even people who say there is no such thing as Thai syntax, which is wrong. On the whole, in the case of languages like Chinese and Thai, to begin with, you are concerned with learning isolated words. How often do I need to repeat a word so that I can recall it or recognize it instantly. How often do I have to hear it; how often, then, do I have to imitate it, to reproduce it, in order to be able to recognize or even to record it instantly?

W: In other words, how many times a word needs to be repeated before it goes into the subconscious part of the mind, so you don't need to keep it in the conscious.

R: I found that I need an incredibly large number of repetitions before I can recall a word at will. I would think that on an average, I need about 500 conscious repetitions. So what I am doing now, and I think it helps a lot, I sit in my car and while I'm driving, I listen to cassettes that I recorded myself. I do German-Thai translation exercises—by the way, I think that translation exercises are wrongly discredited—well, I do my translation, listen for the confirmation from the cassette, stop the tape and spend some five minutes repeating the correct version to myself.

W: Why is repetition so important in learning foreign languages?

R: We must always bear in mind that linguistic skills are acquired very gradually. They are not absent one moment and present the next. They must therefore exist subliminally before they become recognizable. Jean Petit found out by means of sonograms that French students of German were pronouncing the German 'h' long before it became audible to the German ear, which requires at least 30 milliseconds.[2] How often must a sound be heard and produced until this happens? I suspect that subliminal skills exist not only on the phonological level but also on the lexical and grammatical levels. This means that subliminally the learner may be doing something right while overtly he is still doing it wrong.

W: What do you think about repetition activities in a classroom?

R: The classroom is usually adverse to repetition. The class—the students, the teachers—don't like it. They find it boring to hear the same thing again and again. And of course, when you find it boring, then you can't learn. When the repetition is associated with boredom, then it's self-defeating. The brain will not learn things that it is not interested in. Or if one part of the brain tells the other part of the brain, "This is not interesting," then I think learning does not take place.

W: Hopefully, it has to be put into some sort of meaningful context—maybe rhythm can be used. Maybe poetry lines would be easier for the brain to handle ...

R: I have to *believe* that something is going to help me. Personally, I usually do not find repetition boring at all. When I sort of stupidly repeat a word for five minutes, I become more interested in the thing because I detect more and more phonological, lexical, and syntactic features that had escaped me. One little sentence can become very rich and deep when you say it over and over again.

W: And in a way it prepares you for more difficult stages of language processing, for the creative use of language.

R: I'm now at the stage where I test myself every now and then. I have some Thai recordings, authentic Thai which I took in Thailand, from television. When I first played them to myself, maybe six months ago, I couldn't understand a word. I couldn't even isolate words, nothing at all. Now, not only can I isolate, but each time I do it, every three or four weeks, I understand a lot more. And that, too, is something that is very important: the sense of achievement, you must have some measure so that after some time you can see that you have really made progress.

W: What determines the progress of good students?

R: French scientists have been trying to find an answer to this question since ten, maybe fifteen years ago. A French psychologist and school inspector, A. de La Garanderie, conducted experiments to find out why overachievers are overachievers. What do they do to excel? He conducted interviews, and it took a long time to ask the right questions because the kids didn't know what they were after. What he found out was that these overachievers, these successful students were using techniques that everybody was aware of but not everybody used properly: that is, imagery, the ability to generate inner pictures.

W: How can one generate inner pictures?

R: By association, through images, and through inner speech.

W: In what way are inner pictures evoked by association?

R: They are evoked through the activation of networks of ideas in response to verbal or non-verbal stimuli. In *Figure 3*, I have given an example of a guided (symmetrical) network in response to the stimulus *Summer*, and in *Figure 4*, that of a free (asymmetrical) network in response to the stimulus *Bite*.

FIGURE 3
Guided Network in Response to the Stimulus "Summer"

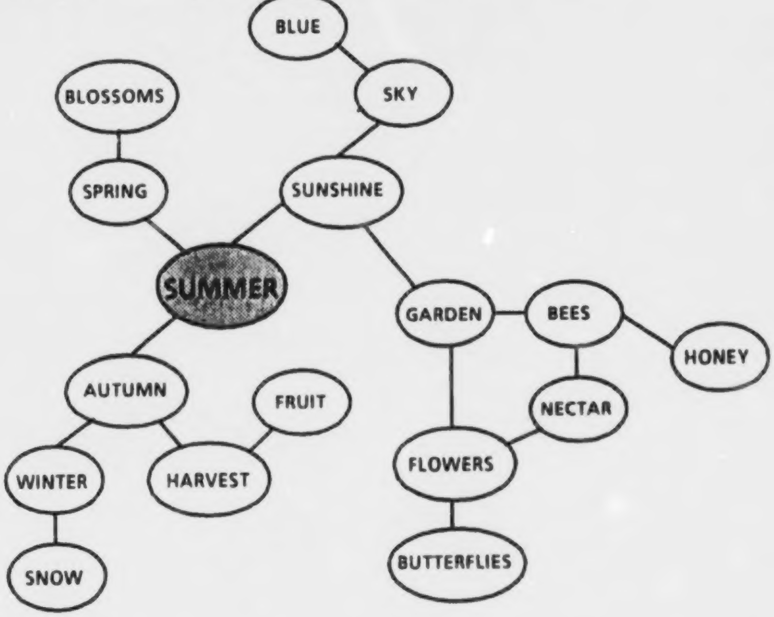
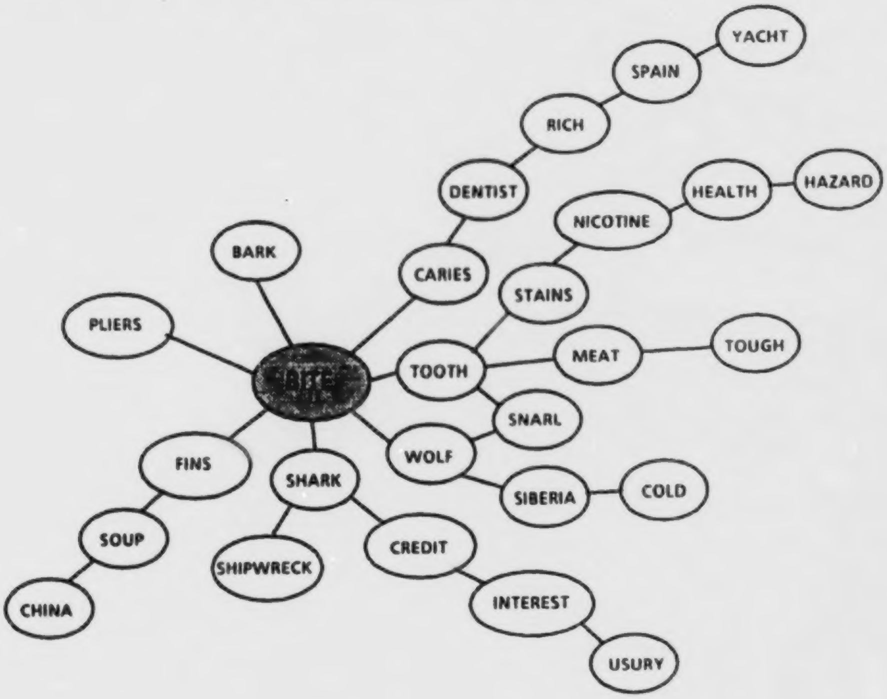


FIGURE 4
Free Network in Response to the Stimulus "Bite"


YACHT
SPAIN
RICH
DENTIST
HEALTH
HAZARD
NICOTINE
BARK
CARIES
STAINS
PLIERS
MEAT
TOUGH
BITE
TOOTH
SNARL
FINS
SHARK
WOLF
SIBERIA
COLD
SOUP
SHIPWRECK
CREDIT
CHINA
INTEREST
USURY

W: How do you differentiate between "guided" and "free" association?

R: By "guided," I mean that all associative links have a plausible relationship to one another and to the stimulus. "Free" means that, as a rule, there is a plausible relationship only to the nearest associative link. Research in the field of biological cybernetics seems to indicate that associative chain reactions take place in neuronal pathways.[3] The associative reactions follow neuronal pathways whose directions and ramifications are determined by activators and inhibitors. The resulting patterns are as individual and as similar as fingerprints. Their individuality is determined by the contingencies of personal experience, their similarity by culture-specific schemata which, by the way, make up the larger part of our memory content. It is of particular interest that these associative memory processes are apparently non-linear.

W: What is the impact of the associative nature of memory on language learning?

R: It enables us to complete patterns; that is, to complete information that was incomplete when it was perceived. This

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ability is directly related to the schemata which our memory forms by abstracting the essential features of things. We can say that abstraction is a prominent feature of our memory processes. When I tell somebody that I was late for work because an accident had caused a traffic jam on the road, I would probably not be asked to describe how the accident came about. Almost everybody has essential features of a traffic accident stored as a schema in his memory. This shows that we usually communicate on a very high level of abstraction, relying on each others schematic memories. Obviously this is the only way of communicating economically. Something very similar happens when, in an artificial learning situation, we are asked to complete incomplete utterances:

Et vo__ ne sent__ qu'une tr___ légère fraî___ dans l___cou.

Dr. Guillotin
(Discours à l' Assemblèe)

Give m___ a nor___ man a___ I w___ cure him.

C. G. Jung

The name *Dr. Guillotin* creates the schema "guillotine", and the name *C. G. Jung* creates the schema "psychiatry." It is these names that make sense of those otherwise cryptic utterances

W: What about images?

R: Images, which should not be equated with pictures, are attracting increasing attention: They help us to see things internally. But how one sees them, what goes on in the brain, I don't know, I don't think anybody knows. There are *iconic* images and, *acoustic* images, that is usually speech.

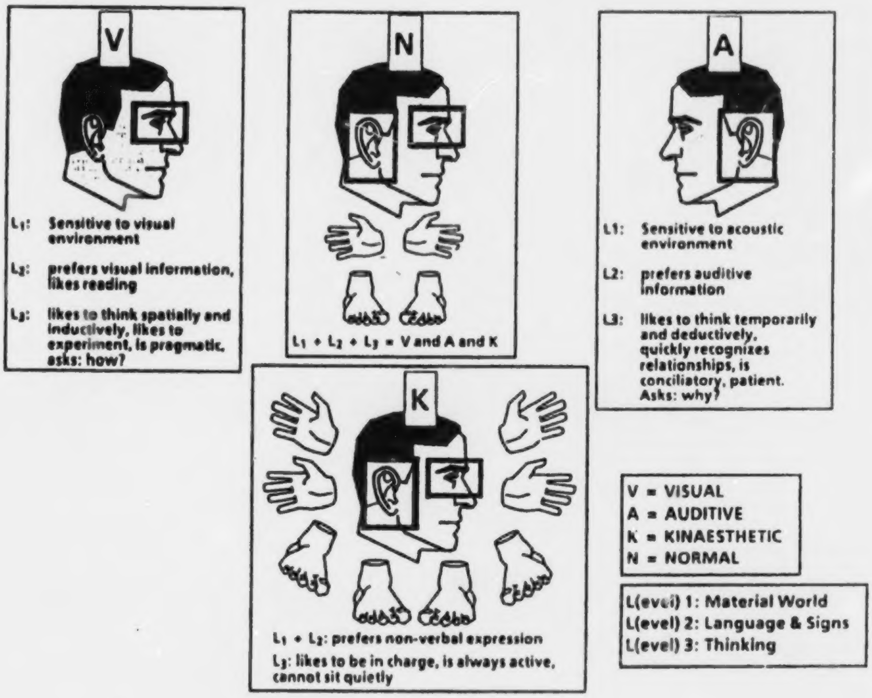
W: How can imagery be used in our lives?

R: We know of successful athletes who practice a particular event through intensive imagery. Actors tell us that they image the public, the stage and their co-actors while they are rehearsing a part. I have personally brought myself to arrange the keywords of a lecture in clusters which I can internally visualize. According to French psychologists, success or failure in learners seems to correlate closely with their neuropedagogic profiles.[4]

W: What kinds of neuropedagogic profiles do you have in mind?

R: Four basic profiles: *visual* (V), *auditive* (A), *kinesthetic* (K), and *normal* (N). Take a look at *Figure 5* for information on these profiles. The visual type learner—that is, one who uses imagery—is expected to have much better results if he also practices inner speech. The so-called auditive type, who is supposed to be particularly weak in science subjects, is said to be able to overcome his weaknesses with the aid of visualization exercises and inner speech, the ability to generate speech internally without articulation, unarticulated speech.[5] Inner speech was researched by a Soviet psychologist of the '30s, the most prominent researcher into inner speech.

FIGURE 5
Neuropedagogic Profiles


V
L_1: Sensitive to visual environment
L_2: prefers visual information, likes reading
L_3: likes to think spatially and inductively, likes to experiment, is pragmatic, asks: how?
N
$L_1 + L_2 + L_3$ = V and A and K
A
L1: Sensitive to acoustic environment
L2: prefers auditive information
L3: likes to think temporarily and deductively, quickly recognizes relationships, is conciliatory, patient. Asks: why?
K
$L_1 + L_2$: prefers non-verbal expression
L_3: likes to be in charge, is always active, cannot sit quietly
V = VISUAL
A = AUDITIVE
K = KINAESTHETIC
N = NORMAL
L(evel) 1: Material World
L(evel) 2: Language & Signs
L(evel) 3: Thinking

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W: Vygotsky?

R: Yes, Lev S. Vygotsky. I also wrote an article on inner speech years ago. Very few people are interested in this phenomenon, but I think that inner speech is at least as important as articulated speech.

W: The role of inner speech was studied by R. W. Brown and E. H. Lenneberg in an experiment with American College women. (1954, pp. 454-462) Students were asked to identify colors. At first they were shown three colors for thirty seconds and then they were shown the same colors mixed all together with 120 different colors. Next they were supposed to identify the colors on the chart. It is noteworthy that those who did the best job of identification were the ones who could associate the color with the name. So they would recall the name of the color and then they would confirm, "Yes, that's the color."

R: They were telling themselves what seemed to be going on ... what they were referring to is that, you see, there are two very complicated processes when it comes to the inner world ... A. de La Garanderie and his colleagues found out that there are two different kinds of people; there are those who can visualize the solution to a problem without having to follow a logical path. There are others who have to tell themselves how to reach the solution. The former are supposed to be overachievers.

W: Yes, right.

R: Personally, I am not quite convinced it is true. But the whole thing is, of course, very complicated. At any rate, it seems to be true that those children, and this has been said also of great scientists like Einstein, those people see the solution to a problem without having to tell themselves what the solution is. And many are even incapable of verbalizing the solution.

W: They just visualize it.

R: They visualize, they can see the relationships. How they see it, I don't know. I can say that I have been experimenting with myself. I have been training myself to do the same thing, and I can now say I can do it. But I cannot really explain how I do it.

W: It's maybe like going into the fourth dimension.

R: Maybe. I can see relationships where other people just don't see them. But I have been able to train myself, and I think anybody can do that. It has nothing to do with intelligence. However, the point I wanted to make was that people who are able to visualize solutions to a problem seem to be overachievers, while it's the others, who must tell themselves what to look for that we should worry about. They need to go from step to step. They tell themselves internally what to do, what rules to apply. In many cases, they are wrong. However, those who visualize from the start seem to be right all the time.

W: Should we train our learners to be able to visualize? Is that possible?

R: Yes. That is my suggestion.

W: How can we do it?

R: There are precise techniques which I cannot explain here. That would be wrong for me to do because you have to see the whole setup. And I have never really done it myself, because the techniques are rather complicated to learn or to teach; however, more attention should be given to our brain's ability to perceive, learn, and retain information through several channels, not only successively, but also simultaneously. New information is retained much better if it is presented at least both auditively and visually, if possible both verbally and non-verbally. We must also bear in mind that the circumstances in which we learn become part of the associative network of retention. Synesthetic linkage can also be of great value to retention: the great mnemonic strength of smells is well-known. Colors, too, can be very good for retention when associated with a learning event.

W: Should we somehow alert our teachers about the role of imagery in learning?

R: Yes, we should alert our teachers to the fact that imagery plays a major role in retention, in memory, or in learning, whatever we call this process. Imagery can be learned and inner speech can be learned: everybody has the ability, except, I think, in people who have defects in imageries affected by hemispheric disorders, as described by Robert W. Sperry and Ronald Myers (1981). After they published the results of their observations of patients after so-called split-brain operations (in which the so-called corpus callosum which connects the two hemispheres by means of about 250 million nervous fibres is severed) in the '50s, interest in the differences between the two hemispheres became very great.[6]

W: What have we learned since then?

R: We have learned since then that we have two brains, because after being severed, the two hemispheres can function indepently of each other. We now know that the left hemisphere thinks, understands, learns, retains, recognizes and recalls mainly in linguistic modes, whereas the right hemisphere is almost speechless and understands, thinks, retains and communicates mainly in sensory modes, that is, non-verbally. The left hemisphere prefers to receive information through one channel at a time only and likes to work analytically, sequentially, and point by point. The right hemisphere, however, prefers to receive information through several channels at a time and likes to work holistically and associatively. It can therefore deal with ambiguity. It is also called the artistic hemisphere because it likes creative disorder. By contrast, the left hemisphere is supposed to be the orderly and reasonable half, that is, the boring one. It is unlikely that Paul Claudel knew anything about hemispheric dominances when he described the phenomenon so aptly: *"L'ordre est le plaisir de la raison, mais le desordre est le delice de l'imagination."* ("order is reason's pleasure, disorder is imagination's delight." — translation by Rohrer.)

W: How can one heighten the mnemonic effect?

R: The mnemonic effect is heightened by linking picture, sound, and color (synesthesia). This also stimulates imagery and inner speech. From a neurcpedagogical view it is important to note that in such exercises both hemispheres are involved simultaneously.

W: Can we use synesthesia in the teaching/learning processes?

R: I am convinced we can use synesthesia—multi-channel learning—in education. It is not easy to do this, not because the whole thing is difficult: it is simple, but it's difficult to convince people to do that; I have discovered that most people don't want to.

W: Have you tested multi-channel learning?

R: Yes, I have tested the effects of multi-channel learning on myself. During a stay in Thailand I spent exactly eighty hours learning some Thai. Using these clusters, I learned 740 words in ten days. In an eight-hour learning day I spent about two hours preparing the clusters, six hours working on the equivalents in Thai with the assistance of students of Thammasat University. This was a laborious task because I had to work out a system of transliteration. Also, I had to learn to identify and produce the five tones of Thai. I had my informants record the clusters on a Walkman. In the evening, I spent one hour learning what I had written down and recorded. I was able to keep up this intensive way of learning for about an hour. Since my return I have continued to learn in this way. Phase 2, I usually do while driving my car, where I am naturally in a high state of wakefulness.

W: Maybe as we are moving towards a communicative way of teaching, the whole system somehow is moving us toward imagery, too. Because in a communicative ...

R: I don't know what *communicative* is. It's a new fad, right?

W: It's a new fad, but basically it calls for acquisition of a language for practical and/or specific purposes, such as conveying information or conversing or satisfying survival needs.

R: Yes, I agree. What I don't understand is what is the *communicative method*?

W: Yes. I think *method* is a narrow term.

R: That's a very narrow term. In that sense, I would say, it's one of those gimmicks. When I look at any textbook—this one, *English as a Second Language*, a French textbook, or any textbook you have, you get the impression that you are following a method. The French call it *une methode*. So the textbook is a method. Usually, the impression is that the writer knows how a human being learns, the way he has prepared, presents the material. Everything there is telling me, "This is the way the brain learns. If you use the material the way I present it, then your brain will learn it." Because that's the way a brain learns. Of course, any textbook is the product of a brain. So there is bound to be something brainy about it.

W: It would not, however, apply when the emphasis is on communication rather than on textbook-driven foreign language instruction.

R: Well, okay. I can agree to some extent, because whenever language is used, for whatever reason, it's communication; it is communication all the time. There can be communication between a book and myself; when I am reading, I am communicating too.

W: You are. That's internal. But if I say to you, "*This is a book,*" wanting you to repeat it, I'm not really communicating because I know ...

R: Isn't it the same? There's a purpose. You want to ...

W: ... unless you didn't know that *It* was a *book*. But if I'm sure that you know, then it's not ...

R; You are telling me that a book is called a *book*, so you are communicating with me.

W: I am, however, teaching "language for language's sake."

R: Yes, and that's too simple. When I look at very old methods nowadays, let's say something written in the 1890s, there, indeed, you find: *La plume de ma tante est sur le bureau de mon oncle*.

W: Yes, that's a typical sentence.

R': If you look at such sentences from a different point of view, then all of a sudden they do make sense. When somebody says, "The door is locked," he says one thing and may mean another; "The door is locked" may mean "Have you got the key?"

W: That's true.

R: In order to convey the meaning "I am cold," you may make the statement, "The window is open."

W: "These shoes are here," but you mean, "Pick up your shoes."

R: What is often forgotten, forgotten because it's so inconvenient, is the role that prosody plays, that is, the way you say it.

W: Intonation.

R: The sentence, "The door is locked" can be said in a thousand different ways.

W: And have different meanings.

R: And have a thousand different meanings that express different intentions. I must mention a very, important book by J. L. Austin, *How to Do Things with Words* (1978), an important discovery in philosophy. Many contemporary philosophers were angry with that discovery. Because how is it possible that we have overlooked this simple thing for two thousand years?

W: Austin proclaimed that every sentence has a propositional meaning.

R: Yes, that we say one thing in order to say something else.

W: The meaning is determined by culture, because each culture has its own format; cultures have developed their own rituals and routines.

R: That is the wall that we will not be able to break through. This is where language teaching ends. How do you say what you mean in a different culture? How do I express concern, for example? In a given situation where a German may ask "*Haben sie sich weh getan?*" the American would probably ask "Are you OK?" As a German, however, I would spontaneously ask, "Did you hurt yourself?" because as a German I communicate with an American as if he were a German who happens to speak English. This can be very awkward, if you're not aware of ...

W: Social constraints.

R: I remember, there was a—I think it was a German politician—in America, talking with an American president, who made a reference to his "coming to power." "When you, Mr. President, came to power," ("*Als Sie an die Macht kamen.*") Now in Europe you can easily say that. You can say that in England. The interpreter translated, "When you took office," not, "When you came to power." Because if he had said the latter, the American president might have been offended. It's probably offensive in the American setting.

W: But we are going into such fields as discourse analysis. There have been articles written, for example, on compliments. How do we give compliments in different cultures? In your article *From Communicative to Cultural Competence* (1987), you mentioned that at one time you went with your wife to a party, and somebody asked your wife: "How much did your dress cost?"

R: Yes.

W: It would be very offensive to ask that question in the American or European setting.

R: Yes. In China when somebody asks you "How much did you pay for your tie?" this is a sign of appreciation. The higher the price, the better. You can nowadays find textbooks where you learn what to expect and how to behave in Indonesia or Japan. They give you a number of *don'ts*, such as *Don't put your feet this way, Don't say this*, etc. Such advice is, however, very superficial.

W: How should we teach culture in a non-superfical way? Should we teach it as a separate subject, or should we integrate it with language teaching?

R: It should be integrated. Right from the start you should learn things that you cannot say in the other culture. The problem is that, for example, when a German learns English in Germany, he learns English in order to speak to an American as if the American were a German. The German teacher of English is in the same situation. So when they are speaking in English in the classroom and they are learning English, they are actually speaking German all the time. Do you understand what I mean?

W: Right, right.

R: It's German in disguise. You see? And in France when they speak English or German, it's disguised French. All the concepts, the whole, communicative interplay is against a French background. Everything else is French. Everything else is German, you see. That is our major problem in the classroom.

W: Yes. Now, let me ask you a question pertaining to your future endeavors. Are you planning to write a dictionary?

R: I'm going to write one, hopefully. A Thai dictionary, because there is none to speak of.

W: It will be Thai-Thai?

R: No, it will be German-Thai and Thai-German. The only bilingual dictionary there is, is a Thai-English Dictionary. The only one there is was compiled by Mary Haas in Berkeley. It was published in the '60s. Unfortunately, nobody seems to have carried on her work. She did a beautiful job. I don't think I could do it like she did, you need a lifetime. But I want to do something.

W: Thank you very much. And I hope I didn't keep you too long.

R: No, no. It was great fun.

Notes

1. After H. Trocmé-Fabré (1987), p. 210 ff. The author is well-known in francophone countries as an advocate of the neuropedagogic approach.
2. Petit quoted by Götz Wienold (1987) in "Time and opportunity to learn in foreign language teaching," *Bulletin of the Institute of Language Teaching, 35 (1987),* Waseda University, Korea.
3. Cf. B. Palm (1988).
4. I refer particularly to the works by Antoine de La Garanderie whose books are widely read in francophone countries.
5. Cf. F. J. Paul-Cavallier (1989) for practical suggestions.
6. The findings of hemispheric dominance research are well described in Springer and Deutsch (1981).

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Foreign Language Teaching and Testing During World War II

David Barnwell
University of South Carolina

Even before the United States entered the Second World War, the realization that conflict was likely, if not imminent, provided a spur for the training of personnel. In 1941 the Rockefeller Foundation, through the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS), created a program designed to provide a pool of persons skilled in the use of foreign languages. This effort was oriented towards the less commonly taught languages, and in its summer offering of 1942, 56 courses were provided, in 26 languages. 18 universities were involved, giving instruction fo. some 700 students In its methodology the program drew to a large extent on the theories and practices of American Structuralism, then the dominant intellectual base of American linguistics. The theoretical tradition on which the teaching methodology was based went as far back as Boas' *Handbook of American Indian Languages* (1911) and Bloomfield's *Introduction to the Study of Language* (1914), as well as his later work.

The ACLS language teaching program of 1942 remains noteworthy for the fact that in it for the first time in the United States language teaching and theoretical linguistics drew rather close together. Linguists who had hitherto worked in more theoretical or research areas were called upon to turn their attention to devising language teaching methods. Naturally enough they tended to use models of language learning that had proved useful in field work—recourse to native informants and repetition, for example. The Intensive Language Program was thus significant not only when measured by the number of new courses introduced, but also when judged in terms of its avowedly "scientific" approach to the study of language and language learning.

Once the United States had entered the War, the need for skilled personnel in a wide range of activities was apparent. To this end, the Provost Marshal General's office created the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) to offer instruction in several spheres, particularly engineering and pre-medical. About 140,000 military personnel received instruction under the ASTP. Of these, some 12,000 were assigned to the Division of Foreign Area and Language Studies. The ASTP administered over 500 language courses in a wide variety of languages, both those already commonly taught and those not so. Its aims and curriculum built on the innovations of the ACLS program, and hence were markedly different from those that had dominated language teaching in the academic environment for the previous decades. In the *Curriculum No. 71* of the Division of Foreign Area and Language Studies the goals of the ASTP were set out: "to impart to the trainee a command of the colloquial spoken form of a language and to give the trainee a sound knowledge of the area in which the language is used" (Angiolillo, p.32). Courses sought to give a very functional ability to communicate in a foreign language environment and to understand those aspects of its culture that might be relevant to the prosecution of the war. Classes were held in civilian institutions—universities and colleges—and in fact participants in the ASTP theoretically were full students of the particular institution they were attending. The Army never set out a specific methodology for the courses, and thus the participating institutions were free to develop their own teaching practices. Nevertheless the goals of the Army were clear to all and tended to foster the oral use of the language, the emphasis that had lost so much ground during the previous decade's enthronement of the reading method.

The Army was keen on continual assessment and resectioning, and indeed men were promoted or demoted on the basis of their test scores. Thus there was much testing conducted as part of the ASTP. Indeed one writer criticized what he termed the "unreasonable amount" of testing, which he charged was "enervating both to students and faculty" (Hebert, 1944). However, by and large many of those involved in the Army program appear to have ignored the need to develop testing practices to reflect the new communicative goals. Though grammar was to be taught merely as a means to an end, it is striking that a good deal of the ASTP testing persisted with a grammatical emphasis. Thus the MLA committee which carried out an extensive review of the program in 1944 reported that "the best tests have been found to be the standard devices" (MLA, 1944). These "standard devices" actually represented some of the more communicative formats then in use, since they included paraphrasing spoken anecdotes or situations, oral responses to questions, dictation, and written responses to auditory comprehension questions. The Committee did recommend the creation of "new devices for objectively testing aural and oral proficiency," but since the ASTP program was short-lived. a full-scale testing revolution never had time to occur within the ASTP.

Though the military did not prescribe one single philosophy of testing, it did tend to encourage criterion-referenced rather than norm-referenced tests. The Army suggested the establishment of two criterion-based levels of proficiency for purposes of rating an individual's language ability:

> 1. Trainees who have satisfied the institutional authorities that they can both comprehend and speak the language as well as a person with the same amount of formal schooling should speak his mother tongue will be ... designated on availability reports as *expert*.
>
> 2. Trainees who have satisfied the institutional authorities that they can readily comprehend the language as spoken by one adult native to another and can speak the language well enough to be intelligible to natives on non-technical subjects of military importance will be ... designated on availability reports as *competent*.

This scale has an important place in the history of testing, especially in the non-academic environment, since it marks perhaps the first use of a functional rather than grammatical criterion of proficiency in foreign language. Yet the scale as expressed appears not to have gained wide acceptance among those conducting the ASTP. Other rating methods were preferred, such as designations of "excellent/good/fair," or even more conservative scales such as the conventional 100-point scale. The fact that ASTP students were thought of as regular students of their particular institutions and were in many cases receiving college credit from that institution militated against experimental evaluation procedures, and there was a tendency for instructors to persist with the testing techniques and grading standards they had used prior to the war.

There were, however, some instances of more innovative testing practices. Much of this activity was centered at Queens College in New York. Here, for instance, an oral examination was adminstered and recorded on phonograph. In addition to standard techniques such as conversation and translator-situations, the test employed many of the materials employed in the teaching itself, such as cartoons and visual aids. According to Angiolillo (1947, p.159), other mechanical devices (such as electrical signals) were utilized to maximize the testing potentialities of the phonograph.

Many persons associated with the Army's language program were undoubtedly aware of the need for new testing formats. In 1944, Walter Kaulfers, in reviewing the kinds of language tests demanded by the special environment of the War, listed the following as the tester's goal:

> The nature of the individual test items should be such as to provide specific, recognizable evidence of the examinee's readiness to perform in a life-situation, where lack of ability to understand and speak extemporaneously might be a serious handicap to safety and comfort, or to the effective execution of military responsibilities (1944).

To this end, Kaulfers supported the use of such items as "How would you tell a Spanish-speaking native to get a doctor? How would

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you ask him to change a ten-dollar bill?" These were literally survival tests, and so they focused on a restricted range of grammatical structures, especially imperatives and interrogatives.

The Army Specialized Training Program had a very brief existence, lasting scarcely one academic year. On the 18th of February 1944 the War Department announced the cancellation of most of the ASTP courses, citing reasons of "imperative military necessity"—in reality the need to avail of a source to replenish the heavy losses incurred in Europe and Asia (Hawley, 1944).

A full evaluation of the content and achievements of the ASTP language program remains to be drawn up elsewhere. The initial euphoria of the popular press, to the effect that "linguistic science" had finally devised a foolproof method for learning foreign languages, was obviously overblown. In contrast, the tone of the MLA Committee's report was more measured: "a considerable percent of the trainees did acquire the ability to express themselves with fluency and reasonable accuracy in the foreign language ... and a high level of ability to understand the spoken language as employed by different native speakers under circumstances representing normal speaking conditions" (*MLA Commission*, 1944, p. 25). Of course the ASTP had many advantages over the situation current in high schools or colleges. There was a fair amount of selectivity as to student intake, and those who took part did so in an atmosphere of military discipline. Large blocks of time were allotted to work in and out of class, and class size was generally small. Since attendance at an ASTP program was considered a privilege, motivation to do well and remain within the program was high.

As the goals of the program were expressly stated in terms of the military's ability to function in the foreign language environment, a proper evaluation of the success of the program would need to be based on evidence of how well ASTP graduates were able to discharge their duties. However, many ASTP graduates, because of the shifting manpower needs of the War, never had the opportunity to exercise their foreign language abilities in the field. As one commentator pointed out, the apparent success of the program "did not prevent the Army from sending to France infantrymen who had been beautifully trained to speak Japanese" (*Science Comes to Languages*, 1944). The others, those who did have an opportunity to use their foreign language training, were so far-flung and used their languages in such disparate situations that no general assessment of their competence was ever carried out. The absence of respected and validated nationally standardized tests meant that it was not feasible to measure the true achievement of those who had learned foreign languages in the ASTP.

Nevertheless, the Army's involvement with language teaching and testing during the Second World War represented the beginning of a vital thread in the history of foreign language testing in the United States. From the emergency needs occasioned by the Second World War stemmed the strand of the American language testing tradition that stresses the holistic and functional use of language rather than solely grammatical accuracy. This view of testing, for several decades confined to military and governmental agencies, is now in one form or another dominant in language testing generally.

The only major application of the ASTP's work to the wartime and postwar academic environment came in the form of Agard and Dunkel's (1948) investigation of the situation in foreign language teaching. Faced with a dearth of tests that might set out to measure overall communicative ability, Agard and Dunkel were obliged to create their own measurement instruments. These tests built upon the more innovative elements of the ASTP's testing, and proved an important affirmation of the break from the old testing tradition. Some of the novel approaches in test construction that were developed at Queens College in New York but never brought to fruition during the war, provided the groundwork for the tests used in *An Investigation of Second Language Teaching*. Communicative ability—intelligibility, as the researchers called it—rather than grammar, was the goal. One part of the test used a series of pictures, to be described by the candidate. The second part, called Sustained Speech, required the student to discourse without interruption on a topic assigned to him on the spot, such as:

Lower level:

> You are talking with a Spanish-speaking person who has never been to the United States. Describe to him the town or city in which you live. (If further stimulus is necessary before time is up: This person is also interested in what a North American home looks like. Describe to him the home in which you live.)

Upper level:

> You have met a young German in Europe who seems to you to have the makings of an outstanding American citizen. You resolve to try to convince him that he should emigrate to the United States. Talk to him about the United States so that you may help him decide whether he would like to come. (If further stimulus is necessary before time is up: Your young German friend is interested in American schools. Describe to him life at the school you attend.)

Part 3 consisted of a directed conversation, with stimuli on phonograph disc. The student heard two voices on the record; one was in the target language, while the other directed the candidate how to respond. So the recorded native speaker might say : "Como esta usted?" whereupon the English voice on the record would say: "Tell him you're fine and ask him how he is."

Scoring for Parts 1 and 3 of the test was holistic, with a rating scale based on success in getting the message across. Part 2 was scored on a more grammatically-based scale, with four separate factors to be scored: fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation/enunciation, and grammatical corrrectness. Agard and Dunkel thus built on the best of the wartime innovations, and their tests looked forward to the format of today's tests. The kinds of testing goals they articulated have since typified the practice of United States governmental bodies. The division of scales presaged the use of scales in the Foreign Service Institute, as also was the case with the separate scoring for different factors, while the resort to situations is still seen in the Interagency Language Roundtable interview and ACTFL/ETS situation cards. However, as a look at the testing literature of the early 1950s makes apparent, Agard and Dunkel's work failed to be assimilated within the profession, and no fundamental change in testing practices in high school or college grew out of the innovations brought about in the 1940s. It would be many years before the academic world would catch up with the best elements of ASTP foreign language teaching and testing.

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Author

DAVID P. BARNWELL, Assistant Professor, Foreign Languages, University of South Carolina, Coastal Carolina College, Conway, SC 29526. Specializations: foreign language testing, history of foreign language education.

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Exploring Adult Dialogue Journals in Dutch as a Foreign Language

Margaret van Daalen
Defense Language Institute

A proliferation of Dialogue Journal (DJ) studies on a variety of populations has been observed in recent years. Journals are widely used to encourage self-expression at all levels of language instruction. Popkin (1985) found that in some foreign language textbooks DJs provided an excellent supplement to artificial dialogues and reading passages. Kreeft, Shuy, and Staton (1985) reported that such journals have helped to clarify learners' interactional roles; and Dolly (1990) investigated conversation management in dialogue writing.

Peyton (1987) defines a DJ as "a written conversation in which a student and teacher communicate regularly" (p. 55). Students write about topics of their choice and the teacher writes back with comments, observations, responses, and clarifications, acting as a participant in an ongoing written conversation. Since dialogue writing involves communicating messages for real purposes, it provides a valuable context for language and writing development.

As a Dutch instructor at the Defense Language Institute (DLI), I investigated whether a relationship exists between end-of-course oral proficiency as measured by interview results, and the type and amount of interactive writing in which the student had been engaged. The adult participants showed diverse goals, attitudes, and degrees of commitment. These random variations, and consequently the difficulty of specifying outcomes in advance, called for a descriptive analysis of the journal entries rather than formal hypothesis testing.

Review of Literature

Written language is primarily transactional or message-oriented (Brown & Yule, 1983), while spoken language, in serving to promote social interaction, is listener-oriented. According to Richards (1990), the difficulty with writing is that it is "decontextualized and must provide its own context, expressing meanings explicitly" (p. 101). The process of moving from concepts, thoughts, and ideas to a written text is complex. Clark and Clark (1977) point out that a written text represents a series of complicated mental operations. Moreover, even though speaking and writing are both productive skills, writing cannot be viewed as a derivative form of spoken language: written language employs different syntax and vocabulary.

The purpose of writing DJs is to stimulate the use of the target language within meaningful, real-life contexts and to motivate the student to "play" with the language in a non-threatening way. This writing provides feedback to the teacher—it is a product that can be examined and reviewed. The question then arises as to what form of feedback the teacher should provide to the student, keeping in mind the process-focused approach to writing. This approach in journal writing takes the form of reflecting on new material as well as synthesizing prior knowledge and experience with new data. In Kepner's study (1991), results indicated that the use of message-related comments as a primary medium of written feedback to periodic discourse-level L2 (Second Language) writing, is effective in promoting the development of writing proficiency in terms of both ideational quality and surface-level accuracy. Message-related comments focus on what the writer was thinking, not on how he or she was saying it. Error corrections and rule reminders in Kepner's study seemed to serve neither to improve students' levels of written accuracy in L2 surface skills, nor to enhance the ideational quality of their writing.

The content and structure of this type of written interaction is more like face-to-face communication. According to Staton (1982, 1983), a 'scaffolding' process helps the learner to accomplish a successful communicative event. Accordingly, the teacher is advised to offer reactions, make suggestions, and give advice about content issues, and to ask for clarification.

Kreeft and Reed (1987) found that communication occurring in journals is inextricably tied to language skill development and understanding of content. The greatest potential for language development exists when participants focus on something other than the language per se. Because of message-related information given in DJs, signs of acquisition of communicative competence should be evident in the writings. Staton (1983) observed that DJs develop mutual knowledge and personal relationships of trust, much like counseling learning encounters in Community Language Learning (Curran, 1976). Kreeft and Reed (1987) argue that without DJ writing between teacher and student, it is hard to know how much each student really comprehends.

Purpose and Rationale for the Study

Since writing and speaking are both productive skills, I expected that continuous interactive writing would increase the students' oral proficiency. I wanted to examine Dutch students' DJ writing and investigate the relationship between type and amount of interactive writing and end-of-course oral proficiency results.

Method

This study was conducted at the Defense Language Institute, Monterey, California, in the Dutch Branch. The Dutch course is 25 weeks in length: 750 academic hours, based on a 30-hour instructional week. The minimum DLAB score requirement for entering the Dutch course is 85; student scores ranged from 96 to 151. As specified in the Program of Instruction, the purpose of the Dutch course is to train officer and enlisted personnel in the Dutch language to attain a minimum ILR Proficiency Level Two in listening and one other skill, with no skill lower than Level One. The course is organized in 3 terms, 5 phases, and 34 lessons. A typical lesson consists of 16 hours of instruction in presentation, practice and use of the target language, including classroom lab.

Subjects

A randomized sample was not feasible, as the Dutch Branch had only one class section at the time. The subjects, students of Dutch at DLI, were eight adult Americans—officers and enlisted personnel in the Armed Forces—seven males and one female, ages 19-32. Their educational levels varied from high school completion to BA degrees.

Procedure

Students were aware from the outset that the purpose of the interactive writing element would be to help their overall proficiency, and the relationship between writing and speaking as productive skills was explained. All eight students agreed to engage in written conversation, known as interactive writing or DJ writing, at least once a week for a period of six months, beginning the second week of class. Participants were encouraged to write as much as they wanted and asked to submit at least one entry per week. The writing would be maintained with the same native speaker of Dutch (myself, in this case, as the class instructor) and would function as a supplement to the coursework. The interactive writing did not involve grading; participants were advised about the teacher's use of message-related comments in their journals, as opposed to error correction. They were also told that the journals might become part of a research project. Further details about procedures are found in the *Excerpts from Student Entries* section.

Excerpts from Student Entries

Initial assignments were kept specific and manageable; for example, "Write several sentences giving background information: where you are from, who your relatives are, and so on." After the initial weeks, students were advised to incorporate the vocabulary, grammatical structures, and idioms they had just studied in class into their journal entries. By incorporating these recently acquired structures into the writings, they were able to express their own ideas and concerns on topics of their choice. Journal entries varied in length and after the initial assignments students were allowed to write as much as they desired. Some became inspired to write several pages, while others seemed to have difficulty writing more than a couple of paragraphs. The type and amount of interactive writing produced by effective and ineffective learners provided interesting sources of data for comparison.

I have presented unedited excerpts using the notations S1, S2 (Student 1, 2, etc.) to identify examples of student writing. To show errors, I have translated literally, using bold type to indicate subject-verb disagreement, conjugation errors, omissions, or incorrect word order.

When asked in the third week of instruction what they liked to do in their free time, they responded:

S1: *Ik ... graag sport en film, ik leest ook geschiedenis.*
(I sport and film, I reads also history.)

T: *Welke sport doet u graag en welke films ziet u graag?*
(Which sports do you like to do and what movies do you like to see?)
Leest u over Amerikaanse geschiedenis?
(Do you read about American history?)

By expanding on the information and repeating some of the structures correctly in the questions, I tried to elicit more information as well as to show correct usage indirectly . In Dutch, first person has no singular marker, whereas second and third person singular have; this is acquired late, like the English "s" to mark third person.

S 2: *Ik kijk naar de televisie* ***niet.***
(I watch the television not.)
Ik wil doen ***goed.***
(I want do good.)
Ik heb ... doen nu mijn taxes.
(I have do now my taxes.)

S 3: *De klas bevalt me goed, goed werk mevrouw.*
(I like class, good job ma'am.)
Nu ***ik*** *kan* ***schoon*** *de huis maken.*
(Now can I clean the house make.)

Student 3 started to incorporate extra vocabulary and sayings early in the writings and made a point of using as much of the extracurricular information as possible.

S4: *Het Nederlands is soms peuleschilletje, maar niet altijd.*
(Dutch is sometimes a piece of cake but not always.)

Note early incorporation of idiom in Dutch.

T: Ja, dat is waar. Success meneer, ik weet dat u hard werkt.
(Yes, that's true. Good luck sir, I know that you work hard.)

S4: *Ik* ***ook*** *weet dat u hard werkt, mevrouw.*
(I also know that you work hard ma'am.)

By using Krashen's $i+1$, the student picked up the clause structure right away. In the program it is not introduced until the tenth week of instruction because it changes the word order in Dutch.

S5: *We leren de tijd vandaag ... vertellen de tijd of geeft me de tijd?*
(We learn the time today ... tell time or give me the time?
Ik weet 't niet zeker, mevrouw.
(I don't know for sure, ma'am.)

This student was negotiating for meaning of the expression "to tell time" in Dutch.

The next student allowed me to see the difficulty for American learners of Dutch in distinguishing between *genieten van* (to enjoy something) and *graag iets doen* (to like to do something). Without the journal, I might not have become aware of this confusion.

S6: ***Vliegt u genieten?***
(Fly you enjoy?)

My interpretation was that the student meant to ask me "Do you like to fly?" (*Vliegt u graag?*) So I responded with the following, incorporating the "to enjoy" in Dutch.

T: Ja, ik vlieg graag. Ik geniet van vliegen, als 't mooi weer is.
(Yes, I like to fly. I enjoy flying when the weather is nice.)

The phrase "to like" is expressed in Dutch by the adverb *graag*, always accompanied by an action verb. In an earlier entry, Student 1 mistakenly used *graag* as a verb, an interlanguage feature of Dutch that is often seen.

After about five weeks it was obvious from the entries that a couple of students did not quite understand the interactive part of the writing, as I kept seeing monologue-type entries with rare acknowledgment of my comments. It may be that these particular individuals were reluctant to admit lack of comprehension. In addition, it appeared that lack of vocabulary knowledge prevented students from writing more. I discussed the sharing of responsibility in the interactive mode of writing and thus some of the stumbling blocks were eliminated. Following this discussion, I allowed them to use occasional English words, to encourage their writing efforts. I subsequently entered the Dutch equivalents of their English in the responses to their entries. I took the following examples from mid-course entries, when students were working with the present perfect and simple past tenses:

S1: *Mijn buurvrouw heeft een* ***Spanish*** *omelete gemaakt. Ik heb* ***veel boffen*** *gehad.*
(My neighbor made a Spanish omelet. I had many "lucks.")

The student used the idiom "to be lucky" incorrectly, but was able to use it properly later because of input from the teacher response:

T: *U heeft zeker geboft!*
(You certainly were lucky.)
Welke ingredienten zitten er in een Spaanse omelet?
(What ingredients are in a Spanish omelet?)

S1: *Meestal aardappelen, ui, een ei zitten er in een Spaanse omelet.*
(Usually potatoes, onion, and egg are in a Spanish omelet.)

S2: *Ik* ***promise*** *de volgende week, ik zal meer schrijven.*
(I promise next week, I 'll write more.)

T: *Ik ben blij te horen dat u wilt* ***beloven*** *mij meer te schrijven.*
(I am glad to hear that you want to promise me to write more.)

Insertion of the Dutch equivalent of "to promise" in the response to the student.

S3: *Mevrouw van Daalen en ik zijn oude vrienden, ik heb mevrouw v. Daalen* ***over*** *acht week* ***geweten***.

(Mrs. van Daalen and I are old friends, I have Mrs. van Daalen known over eight weeks.)

S4: *Tegenwoordig, m'n lerares'**s** naam is mevrouw van Dalen. Ik **wist** haar sinds maart.*
(Presently, my teacher's name is Mrs. v. Dalen. I knew her since March.)

In Dutch there are two verbs for "to know:" *kennen*, used to indicate familiarity or acquaintance with a person, and *weten*, used to indicate the knowledge of individual facts. Both Students 3 and 4 in the above entries incorrectly used *weten* for knowing me, as opposed to *kennen*. In addition, in Dutch the present tense and *al* express continuous action from past into present. Not only did they choose the wrong verb, but Student 3 used the present perfect and Student 4 used the simple past, to express the fact that they had known me for a while. Thus the journal helped me to realize to what extent they comprehended grammatical structures and multiple meanings of certain language features.

When asked if they thought anything was unusual about the Dutch culture, now that they'd been exposed to it for a while, one student responded:

S5: *De Nederlanders hebben goede gewoonten (ze gebruiken altijd "maar," "even," "s"—sentence softeners) en ze hebben Den Haag, de **centre** van de **kalmte** van 't wereld. Maar ze hebben ook veel druggebruikers en prostitueen. Dat is niet in de haak.*
(The Dutch have good habits [they use always "but," "just," "once"—sentence softeners], and they have The Hague, the center of peace in the world. But they also have many drug users and prostitutes. That doesn't go well, or that is not quite right.)

Student 5 used the last idiom incorrectly, but tried to express relevant thoughts interpreting cultural matters. This entry provided us with an opportunity for exchanges of opinion in interactive writing.

The next two students requested clarification:

S6: *Hebben de Nederlanders zo'n distinction (verschil?) tussen house en home?*
(Do the Dutch make such a distinction [difference] between house and home?)

S7: *Hoe zeg je jealousy in 't Nederlands?*

(How do you say *jealousy* in Dutch?)
Ik ben jaloers geweest.
(I have been jealous.)

Similarly to procedures in Dolly's study (1990), DLI students initiated topics and I expanded on them. They took advantage of the opportunity to direct the conversation and to initiate personal or "trust" issues like divorce, loss of a friend, admiration for art and poetry, and personal relationships.

Entries toward the end of the six-month course reflected a much greater mastery of DJ writing, involving frequent use of clarification requests, comprehension checks, and confirmation checks (as in Long's classification of repairs in oral conversation, 1983). The students also became more proficient in expressing likes and dislikes. The following examples of entries taken towards the end of the course illustrate some of the more proficient message-oriented DJ writing:

S1: *Ik heb veel last van de taal.*
(I'm bothered by the language.)
Ik hou van schrijven, maar ik ***heb vervelend van*** *"Speak Dutch." Ik weet 't wel dat 't een belangrijk boek is, maar 't is ook saai.*
(I like writing, but I am bored with/have a nuisance with "Speak Dutch." I know that it is an important book, but it also is boring.)
Weet je wat ik ***beteken****?*
(Do you know what I mean?)

S2: *Ik heb last van jouw handschrift.*
(I am bothered by your handwriting.)
T: *Je hebt gelijk, m'n handschrift is vreselijk, ik zal proberen duidelijker te schrijven*
(You are right, my handwriting is terrible, I'll try to write more clearly.)

S3 *Ik* ***heb*** *'t zat met Jan en Piet. In de klas zouden we van 't boek moeten* ***vertrekken***
(I am sick and tired of John and Pete. We should "depart" from the book in class.)
Ik raad dat je denkt dat ik vervelend ben.
(I guess you think I'm a nuisance or a bore.)

As can be seen from these entries, students have few inhibitions about expressing feelings of discontent, a well-known phenomenon encountered by all towards the end of an intensive language course. However, I was pleased that they were able to express this without undue anxiety.

S4: *Vandaag hebben we 't over de "uit iets wijs worden." Kunt u even aan me 't duidelijk maken?*
(Today we talk about "to make sense out of something." Can you make it clear to me?)

A clarification request to the teacher for exemplification of a difficult idiom.

S5: *Ik heb de taal nog niet (helemaal niet) onder de knie.*
(I don't have the language down pat yet [not at all]).

Good use of idiom.

S6: Ik wist niet dat je in ... geweest bent. Heb je **vuil** gedanst? Als je 't maar vaak genoeg doet, dan gaat 't op den duur vanzelf.
(I didn't know you have been in ... Did you dance "dirty?" If you do it often enough, it goes automatically after a while.)

This student used idioms abundantly and, in most instances, correctly.

After a cultural exchange about the Dutch painter Van Gogh, and the difficulties he encountered, one of the students wrote:

S7: *Van Gogh **was** niet begrepen, omdat hij Nederlands sprak!*
(Van Gogh was misunderstood because he spoke Dutch!)

Passive constructions are more prevalent in Dutch than in English, and not always understandable for American learners of Dutch. This student was trying to use a passive construction in a humorous way. I responded:

T: Yes, it could be that van Gogh's Dutch was incomprehensible, but I very much doubt it; but then again, he did not need to say much, for his paintings "spoke" for themselves....

To conclude this section of excerpts, I selected the following entry:

S8: *Ik vindt 't haast niet te geloven dat ik hier al zes maanden ben **geweest**. Monterey is de enige plaats waar ik me thuis voel. Dit is mischien de laatste **tijd** dat ik in **deze tijdschrift** zal schrijven.*
(I think it's hard to believe that I've been here for six months. Monterey is the only place where I feel at home. This is maybe the last time that I'll write in this "magazine.")

This was the writing of one of the less proficient students in the course, but it reflected the writer's ability to express certain thoughts and it got the message across to the reader.

Results and Discussion

Although students showed considerable diversity in degree and style of participation, I was able to classify them as effective and ineffective interactive writers. Within these two categories, I identified four Monitor Over-Users. According to Krashen (1982, p. 19), Monitor Over-Users are "performers who are constantly checking their output with their conscious knowledge of the second language." This was evident from the student entries: concise and neat, always using correct grammatical structures, not taking risks unless they were sure the output was accurate. However, the amount of writing they produced was minimal. Krashen argues that Monitor Over-Use may derive from the performer's history of exposure to the second language, or may be related to personality. In the case of these four individuals, I would say that personality factors seemed to influence the types of entries. Furthermore, these four individuals seemed more introverted and less skilled in interpersonal/social relationships. The four more successful writers were socially sensitive and appeared rather extroverted.

The most striking differences in type of writing were found in two individuals: one, an Optimal Monitor User and the other, a Monitor Under-User. According to Krashen (1982, p. 19), the Optimal Monitor User relies on learned competence to supplement acquired competence, and the Monitor Under-User depends more on a feel for correctness and a reliance on the acquired system. The journal entries of this Monitor Under-User outnumbered anyone else's. The Optimal Monitor User took second place in amount of writing. Both participants clearly enjoyed the writing and derived pleasure from playing with the language in a non-threatening way. They went about it in their own ways, displaying differences in personality, intelligence, aptitude, attitude, and motivation. These last two writers were on opposite ends of the educational level scale, with a 40-point difference in DLAB scores, yet they were the two most successful in interactive writing. Why?

Since no grading was involved, I expected that positive attitude and motivation would have an impact on the amount of interactive writing. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivation can be defined in terms of the student's overall goal or orientation. The two students with the highest numbers of entries were highly motivated and maintained a positive attitude throughout the course. They also seemed to be goal-oriented, trying to obtain the highest possible ILR proficiency scores. Realizing that interactive writing might help them to obtain that objective, they provided continual DJ input. The other participants seemed initially to be motivated but as the course progressed their DJ entries reflected that they just wanted to do the minimum necessary to meet the weekly requirement.

What about aptitude? Were DLAB scores predictive of achievement? The rationale underlying the concept of language aptitude is that it represents a collection of abilities which, through a process of transfer, predict the degree of success in second language learning. The assessment of such aptitude emphasizes vocabulary and grammatical skills in one's own language. The following DLAB scores were obtained by the students of Dutch:

96 104 113 115 124 132 136 151

Noticeable are the extremes, *96* and *151*. It is interesting that the writer with the lowest DLAB score lacked English vocabulary and grammatical skills, yet the amount of interactive writing this student produced exceeded everyone else's, and he placed third (Student C) in the class, scoring L2+, R2+, S2; thus, he outperformed all except two students with higher DLAB scores. In this case, amount of interactive writing seemed to have enabled a student with a low DLAB score to overcome the odds against achieving high DLPT scores. What would be the relationship between type and amount of interactive writing and end-of-course interview results for oral proficiency?

The student with the highest DLAB score graduated second in the class (Student B), scoring L2+, R3, S2. This student, a Monitor Over-User, lost interest in the course and the DJ writing halfway through the study. If his writing had continued in the same quantities as it began, he could have graduated L3, R3, S2+. The number-one graduate, (Student A) was an Optimal Monitor User who appeared extroverted, had the second-highest number of entries in the DJ, the second-highest DLAB score, and remained motivated for the length of the course. Student A apparently enjoyed the dialogue writing to such an extent that he experimented with poetry in Dutch. Although it would be simplistic to equate all success in foreign language learning with amount of interactive writing, in this particular study, there was a clear indication that a greater amount of interactive writing was associated with higher oral proficiency results.

What can this tell us about the rest of the participants? *Table 1* gives an overview of the results obtained, as well as corresponding DLAB score, educational level, amount of interactive writing, and type of interactive writing.

As shown in *Table 1*, all students graduated with 100 percent of the DLI requirements: they reached 2–2–1 proficiency scores. An interesting observation can be made by looking at the speaking scores of students E, G, and H. They submitted a limited number of journal entries and obtained low speaking scores. They also appeared lessskilled in interpersonal/social relationships and did not enjoy writing in English, much less in a foreign language. Thus, native lan-

TABLE 1
DLPT results and their relationship to interactive writing

Student	DLPT Results			DLAB	Ed Level	Amount of Interactive writing	Type of Interactive writing
	L	R	S				
A	3	3	2	136	BS	exceeded	optimal user
B	2+	3	2	151	BA	average	mon. over-user
C	2+	2+	2	96	12 yrs	exceeded	mon. under user
D	2	3	2	113	3 yr coll	modest	mon. over-user
E	2+	2+	1+	124	BS	very limited	mon. over-user
F	2	2+	2	104	BA	average	mon. over-user
G	2+	2+	1+	132	2 yr coll	very limited	mon. under user
H	2	2	1+	115	BA	very limited	mon. over-user

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guage writing ability also enters into this complicated picture of interrelated factors that influence oral proficiency results. Although a direct correlation between end-of-course results and amount and type of interactive writing would be hard to substantiate in a scientific manner, it emerged in this experiment as a factor of significant value to the teacher.

Based on the responses of students to the questionnaire, though, their overall impression of DJ writing was positive; most students realized the potential of interactive writing for increasing foreign language proficiency in this type of intensive learning.

Student Feedback and Comments

To obtain feedback from the participants about their experience with Dialogue Journals, I administered a questionnaire at the end of the course. The following information shows the tallied responses of the participants to each of the eight statements.

The student comments are presented verbatim in Appendix A. Their responses indicated that they believed DJ writing was helpful, and all eight indicated that they would recommend it to other students. An interesting point was made by students E, G, and H, who obtained low oral proficiency scores. They indicated that, in retrospect, they wished they had written more, and were convinced it would have benefited them.

Lack of vocabulary seemed initially to be the biggest stumbling block, preventing the students from expressing what they wanted to write. Their suggestions for changes stressed a combination of homework and dialogue writing, and making specific assignments, as well as allowing for plenty of free writing. In addition, a suggestion was made to change the name Dialogue Journal to "Writing Practice Notebook," rather than emphasizing the diary aspect and its issues of confidentiality.

The feedback overall was very positive, especially as, for the majority of the participants, the task of interactive writing was not an easy one. Thus the students discovered for themselves what benefits interactive writing offered.

Conclusions

This study has been exploratory in nature and raises many questions: we need to learn more about the relationship between L1 and L2 writing, and how L2 writing skills are affected by interlanguage transfer.

TABLE 2
Tallied feedback from student questionnaire

	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	HELPFUL	⇐		NOT HELPFUL	⇒		
1. DJ writing contributed to my general understanding of the target language.	1	5	2				
2. DJ writing provided me with an opportunity to express my own thoughts and concerns in the target language.		4	4				
3. DJ writing added to my actual usage of the target language in real life situations.	1	6	1				
4. DJ writing allowed me to see my own development in the target language.		1	2	4	1		
5. DJ writing increased my self-confidence in speaking the target language.			4	3	1		
6. The instructor's feedback in the DJ enabled me to get clarification of language structures in a non-threatening way	1	3	3		1		
7. DJ writing promoted student-instructor interaction and increased mutual understanding.	1	2	4		1		
8. DJ writing helped me to apply recently-acquired idioms to express my own interests.	1	4	3				

Although DJ studies are designed by teachers rather than researchers, they are not applicable in every situation, as not all teachers want to get to know students beyond their in-class or standard test performance.

However, the journals clearly showed the students' language development and enabled me to ascertain' their weaknesses and strengths. The interactive writing also provided me with information about what motivates the learner, and it supplied an open communication channel between student and teacher. DJ writing is a valuable source of insight into affective and personal factors that influence interaction in the language learning process.

By exploring the use of adult DJs in Dutch as a foreign language, I learned about eight special people: we developed a unique bond in the course of our wonderful interactive writing experience. Moreover, I hope that this article will encourage other foreign language teachers to interact with their students through DJ writing.

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Appendix A

Student Comments

Please write your own answers to the following questions:

- *In composing your DJ writing, what was the biggest problem you experienced?*

  I'm not much of a writer in English, let alone in Dutch. It was hard for me to make myself write. Ever since I've been in the military, writing has always been concise (not flowery) acronyms, direct and to the point which made it hard for me to express myself in my journal. I wasn't used to this type of writing.

  [Blank]

  At first: lack of vocab, later, wanting to use idioms or complex structures in the journal.

  Not knowing what to write about and not liking to write even in English.

  I did not have the vocabulary (and general understanding) in Dutch to fully express what I wanted to say. I also lost the incentive to do the task.

  The same problem I have in English, namely, which words to use. My lack of vocab was frustrating, and made writing an intimidating task.

  Finding time to do it and not having the knowledge of the language to say what I wanted for quite a while.

  Wanting to say something in Dutch and not having the vocabulary to express my thoughts.

- *What changes would you make in the writing or assignments, if any?*

  The writing assignments were very open, we could write whatever we wanted. I often prefer an actual assignment, so that I know what is expected of me. I realize that assignments had been given for the DJ, but I would have liked it better if there were more assignment-type writing, more structure.

  There was no correction of the grammar or spelling and this may have enforced bad habits.

[Blank]

Set a specific goal tied to the structures recently used. For example: Write four sentences in the simple past over what you ate last nite. Set a specific time limit. For example: In the next 25 minutes write the sentences in example above.

I prefer *not* to have specific topics on which to write. I want to write about whatever I want to write.

I would de-emphasize the "diary" aspect of it (the confidentiality, straight, secret path to you) and emphasize the more practical, less exciting aspect. This is a writing practice notebook.

Make it very structured with ideas given to write on every week, to go along with class activities.

Make the DJ a part of homework to ensure it is always completed, using the grammar of the lesson.

- *Would you prefer to have DJ writing as homework, instead of more traditional grammar exercises?*

Yes.

I thought it was an excellent tool for helping us learn the language and I think that it could be used in some form to better enforce the use of grammar.

They are both helpful because they have different aspects.

Use it in place of traditional homework or set aside time during the class day.

Yes.

Yes. Absolutely. We found ourselves cramming before the OPI on real life situations (What if your car breaks down?) or possible would-be questions. These kinds of things would be good questions for the DJ. Especially if it were homework.

The DJ was helpful, I feel, but in and of itself in this type of quick-paced course, I don't feel that it could teach the grammar sentences and how to use the sentences as well as the workbook. It is a good way to learn to use the language but only works when you're "ironing out the wrinkles;" it can't teach you how to use the language.

Yes, with perhaps more emphasis stressed on the grammar of the lesson that the class happens to be studying at the time.

- *Would you recommend Foreign Language DJ writing to other students at DLI ?*

Yes, writing and speaking are active skills, which for me personally were the most difficult to acquire. If I had written more, I think that my speaking would also have benefited.

Yes.

Yes.

Yes, I have already done this to students in other languages.

Yes.

Yes.

Yes.

Yes, even though I didn't write in it perhaps as much as I could/should have, it is a good idea. In retrospect, it would have benefited me more if I would have written more.

- *Please write any other comments you may have about foreign language DJ writing.*

I would have liked the topic writing more. For example: Describe your home, pet, vacation, favorite outfit, parents, how to cook your favorite food ... etc.

[Blank]

I found it helpful because after repeating words, phrases, and idioms over and over in the journal, they became a part of everyday speech. I found that words and phrases that I wanted or needed to know became much easier to remember than many of the other words I may have been exposed to, but not required to memorize.

[Blank]

[Blank]

> Journal writing is a good idea, because it makes the student exercise his/her limited vocab, or acquire a bigger one. And it demonstrates, or affords the student the opportunity, to explain a lot of things. More correctly, it shows him/her that he/she can write with the few words available.
>
> I feel the DJ was a good way to use the language but would be better if it were more structured. I also feel that it could only be used as a supplementary not as the main grammar usage material.
>
> In the beginning of the DJ, it is more frustrating trying to think of what to write. For some it is easier than others. In the end of the course it was easier to write. Therefore, prescribe things to write about in the beginning, moving more to freelance towards the end.

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Author

MARGARET VAN DAALEN, Assistant Project Director, Test & Standards Division, Defense Language Institute. Interests: foreign language testing, second language acquisition research, error-analysis, classroom research.

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Code-Switching and Its Role in the Chicano Population

Raúl Cucalón
Defense Language Institute

This article deals with code-switching and its occurrence in the borderlands of the United States and Mexico. Long regarded as something that should be avoided, now code-switching is being considered as an indication of loyalty and self-identification with the cultures surrounding the speakers.

"Why make Carol *sentarse atrás pa'que* everybody has to move *pa'que se salga*?" (Poplack, 1989, p. 589).

Every human language varies according to its speaker's social, educational and professional levels, gender, and geographical location. These factors influence a particular language, generating a variation known as a dialect.

In order to produce communication between two or more people, a person chooses a code. When there is a systematic interchange of words, phrases, and sentences in two or more languages, an alternation of linguistic codes known as code-switching develops (Gingras, 1980; Crystal, 1985; Odlin,1989).

Code-switching is found all over the world; it is a universally encountered linguistic event which develops where two or more languages come into contact, when people who do not share the same language need to communicate. Thus, code-switching occurs in situations which demand the use of two or more languages, as in borderlands between countries with different languages, such as Austria and Italy, Uruguay and Brazil, or Mexico and the United States (Crystal, 1985; Blanco, 1988; Odlin, 1989).

How does code-switching happen? Are there any rules that govern it? Does it follow syntactic patterns? Various cases of code-switching have been described, which has led to the analysis of whether such rules can be observed governing the production of code-switching as a special speech event.

The merging in verbal communication of two or more languages which appears in contact situations produces a juxtaposition of passages of speech (words, phrases, sentences) which belong to two or more different grammatical systems (Gumperz, 1982; Odlin, 1989).

If code-switching follows rules and there are specific components of the communicative events where it happens, we can observe the following passage cited by Labov (1982) as an instance of non-rule-governed variation: "*por eso* you know it's nothing to be proud of it, as a matter of fact I hate it" (Gumperz, 1982. p. 70). In this example there is no specific pattern of code alternation. Peñalosa (1980), on the other hand, considers code-switching to be rule-governed, pointing out that it is not unpredictable behavior, because it occurs after major components of a sentence, but not after almost every word. Lederberg and Morales (1985, p. 113) quote a sentence in which only one word has been switched: The towel *roja* was dirty. Thus, code-switching can happen with only one word within a sentence. The switch can occur in the middle of the sentence, and then each part of the sentence may be interpreted as an independent one. Entire sentences can be inserted into the text of the other language (Gumperz & Hernández-Chávez, 1980; Jacobson, 1980): Juan was very sick. *Tuvo que ir al* hospital.

Code-switching can also happen at the end of a sentence, according to Gumperz and Hernández-Chávez (1980). A different version of how code-switching will happen comes from Lance (1980), who mentions three types: single words or terms inserted into a sentence; longer phrases, and quotations. There does not seem to be one specific pattern in which code-switching occurs.

Having analyzed the ways code-switching can take place, we can go on to explore the issue of whether people are aware of the speech event as they perform it. It is believed that speakers do show some awareness of language mixing, distinguishing the two separate languages. Usually, the switch in codes is intentional, and serves a variety of purposes, such as substituting for an unknown lexical term, or for stylistic or situational reasons, or in interpersonal relations. Thus, code-switching is the result of definite social strategies (Gumperz and Hernández-Chávez,1980; Lance, 1980; Timm, 1980; Barkin, 1980; Jacobson, 1980; McClure, 1980; Peñalosa, 1980; Odlin, 1989).

The word or phrase which is most readily available at the time the speaker needs it for the speech will be the one used: *Tienen que sacarle una* X-ray. The Spanish word *radiografía* may not be immediately available to the speaker.

There are people who are more prone to code-switching, such as those who have been addressed by familiar interlocutors indiscriminately in both languages. The mixing does not result in these instances from a lack of knowledge of either language (Peñalosa, 1980; Odlin, 1989).

In order to code-switch, a person has to be familiar with the different languages. People who live in areas where several languages coexist are usually bilingual. This condition tends to make individuals less aware of which language they are using to express their ideas, and in which language they hear somebody else's words. Bilinguals can be considered 'compound bilinguals' if they object to or reluctantly implement the code alternation (Jacobson, 1980; Peñalosa, 1980).

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The Social Factor

The social environment of an individual at a particular time seems to be a factor that triggers the alternation of codes. This suggests an awareness in the speaker, of when code-switching happens. It is frequently seen in people who are members of minority groups speaking the native tongue at home and using the language of the majority at work or when dealing with members of other groups, in order to establish ethnic identity markers. Code-switching is affected by the topic of conversation, the participants in the conversation, the setting, and the message the speaker is trying to convey. Language is used in different ways according to specific settings and specific purposes. (Peñalosa, 1980; Gumperz & Hernández-Chávez, 1980; Gumperz, 1982; Gumperz, 1985).

The Main Issue: The Chicanos

Keeping in mind these aspects of code-switching, we can explore its influence and role in one of the largest code-switching groups in the United States: the Chicano population. They are well-known "code-switchers" (Sawyer, 1980), people who "shift back and forth between English and Spanish without embarrassment" even when monolinguals are present. Two languages and two distinct cultures meet, in a setting where code-switching can flourish; these borderlands become, therefore, "the very center of the Chicano sociolinguistic experience" (Peñalosa, 1980, p. 63).

The Chicano population lives mainly along the southern border of the United States, in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. This ethnic group is considered to be formed by persons of Mexican descent who are American citizens by birth and reside in the United States. They are, in part, descendants of indigenous Spanish-speaking populations, especially in California. Others are descendants of immigrants who came from Mexico in the late nineteenth century and settled in the southwestern United States.

The borderland inhabitants can be separated into those whose mother tongue and national language is Spanish: the Mexican population; those whose code is English: the Anglo-Americans; and those who are normally speakers of both Spanish and English: the Mexican-Americans, or Chicanos.

This group of inhabitants of the United States has had to struggle for acceptance within both the American and Mexican communities. They live in part the American life, and in other ways in the Mexican style (Alatorre, 1980; Gumperz, 1982; Fishman & Killer, 1982; Pfaff, 1986; Poplack, 1989). They have not become totally integrated into the American Melting Pot.

Chicanos may be held in low esteem by some Mexicans who consider immigration a "denigrating process" (Hidalgo, 1986, p. 210). The attitude that a person of Mexican culture learning English at the expense of Spanish has shown disloyalty towards the country of his forefathers, is apparently widespread in Mexico. The loss of Spanish and of Mexican cultural values is seen as one of the worst things that could happen (Paredes, 1980; Hidalgo, 1986). Chicanos are not considered part of the Mexican lifestyle, because they were born in an English-speaking country; on the other hand, because of their ties with Mexico, they are not regarded as integrated in the American population. Thus, Chicanos find themselves torn between using the English of their country of birth and the Spanish of their ethnic-cultural background. As elsewhere in close-knit minority-language settlements, residents of Spanish-speaking neighborhoods have developed their own dialects of Spanish, based on the switching of English and Spanish codes. This language is variously referred to as Chicano Spanish, Tex-Mex, Spanglish, pocho, caló, or miti-miti.

In the southwestern United States, where code-switching is common among the Chicano population, Chicano Spanish has for some time carried stigmatizing and derogative connotations.

Attitudes toward Chicano Code-Switching

Native speakers of Spanish generally assume that people code-switch because they are not academically prepared to speak "proper" standard Spanish. Chicanos, usually representatives of poor segments of the American population, have had to make their own lifestyle, drawing upon combinations of Anglo and Mexican cultures.

Hidalgo (1986) investigated the inherent values of Spanish-English code-switching in the El Paso-Juárez area. She chose this locale for its uniqueness in terms of population distribution and constant movement between the two countries. For her study, Hidalgo selected 85 informants: 46 percent born in Juárez, 39 percent elsewhere in Mexico, and 14 percent in El Paso.

To summarize results in this study of attitudes toward local versus national Spanish: The Mexicans from Juárez, the Juarenses, rejected the code-switching employed by El Paso residents as an indication that the Texans could not finish in Spanish what they wanted to say, and that they lacked vocabulary they should have learned in school. According to the Juarenses, if those people from El Paso wanted to be called Mexicans, they should talk as Juarenses do, since they consider Juárez to be the closer model to the way Mexicans speak. Women informants displayed more negative feelings toward code-

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switching than men did. Females referred to code-switching as upsetting and ugly-sounding. Males claimed not to be bothered by constant code-switching but considered it incorrect and de-ethnicized.

The majority of the informants believed that Mexican-Americans were able to speak Spanish, but pretended not to know it. About half of these informants claimed not to understand code-switchers when the change from one language to another was unexpected. Mexicans perceived Spanish as part of their own identities and did not necessarily identify themselves with Chicanos. They adopted an aloof attitude toward Chicano code-switching, but whenever Mexican-Americans maintained Spanish-only style, the Mexicans identified with them. Ethnic affiliation was apparently important for both groups (Hidalgo, 1986).

Among Chicanos, code-switching is more a rule than an exception. This topic reaches everybody in the Chicano community. Ramirez (1982) mentions an excellent example of code-switching in bilingual students:

> "*Ana tiene* thirteen years. She likes to play *con su hermano*, Richard, *que tiene* eight years. Ana's mother *le trajo un* red shawl *para su* birthday. When *Ana se fue a poner su* shawl, she couldn't find it *porque* Richard *lo habia escondido* under some boxes. *Ana* was very angry, *pero su madre le dijo* not to be upset *porque su hermano* was only playing a game" (p. 287).

For teachers who deal with Chicano children it is essential to recognize the importance of code-switching in students' extracurricular daily lives, and to respect this variety in language as a real system of communication.

Students learn code-switching patterns from their teachers. If they follow these patterns consistently, there are no grounds for regarding their speech as incorrect (Sanchez, 1980; Peñalosa, 1980; Blanco, 1988).

Although Chicanos seem to have different reasons for code-switching, the most important is the need to identify with the Mexican culture of their ancestors, and consequently to express loyalty to that language. By switching to Spanish for reasons of identity, they seek to demonstrate their bicultural heritage, along with personal feelings of affection, loyalty, sympathy and commitment, religious belief, and pride.

Chicanos switch to English when they are showing displeasure or personal distance; experiencing fear or pain; or when discussing professional matters or typically Anglo-American topics. By returning to Spanish, they indicate personal involvement in the Mexican culture and life. They switch back also for leave-taking, using the commonly heard á*ndale pues*, (Gumperz & Hernández-Chávez, 1980; Timm, 1980;

Barkin, 1980; Aguirre, 1980; Jacobson, 1980; Peñalosa, 1980; Gumperz, 1982).

Chicanos are, with time, building their own identity, based on their own dialect, which summarizes their own background and links the codes used in the two countries they share ties with. Their loyalty to Spanish and to the English of their country of birth are adroitly brought together in a blending of both codes into a new language.

Conclusion

The widely used combination of English and Spanish codes, whatever name is used for it, is the second most widely spoken language in the United States, and will perhaps eventually surpass English as the main language in extensive regions of the country.

The Chicano movement has brought to this segment of the American population a recently-found pride in the various codes they use, making more and more Chicanos self-satisfied with their language variety (Tovar, 1980; Peñalosa, 1980). In recent years, ethnic consciousness has awakened, and pride in local folk traditions has grown. Code-switching has come to reflect the identity of this group, linking Chicanos to the cultural and linguistic values of their Mexican forefathers.

In California now, Chicano Spanish is being used in works of literature, in poetry and prose. Chicano studies are being taught at universities. None of this would have been possible without the occurrence of code-switching. It gives Chicanos the identity they need as a special community. Code-switching in the Chicano population is here to stay: it is the result of the union of two great cultures: the Anglo-Saxon and the Spanish.

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Author

RAÚL CUCALÓN. Training Instructor, School of Romance Languages, Spanish Department C, Defense Language Institute. Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: interference phenomena, psycholinguistics.

Support and Coordination of Faculty and Staff Research

Introduction

The January 1987 issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction* carried an article by Dr. John A. Lett, Jr. entitled "Research at DLI—Alive, Well, and Growing." Along with a brief history of DLIFLC research and descriptions of projects in progress at that time, the article included an overview of future plans. It was expected that the Research Division of the Directorate of Evaluation and Standardization would conduct in-house projects, work jointly with other government agencies or with academic researchers, and support research by DLIFLC faculty.

In the years since the article appeared, very few faculty members have sought the endorsement and guidance of Research Division for research proposals. However, an increasing number of DLIFLC teachers have enrolled in the Master of Arts in the Teaching of Foreign Languages (MATFL) program at the Monterey Institute of International Studies. Many more have been actively reading the professional literature and implementing state-of-the-art techniques in their classrooms. Instructional concepts unique to DLIFLC such as six-member team teaching, the Learner-Focused Instructional Day, and the user agencies' Final Learning Objectives have been incorporated into the language programs.

With the expectation that new ideas in teaching have stimulated new ideas for faculty research, *Dialog on Language Instruction* is reprinting the Research Division's guidelines for in-house projects. (These guidelines were officially issued in DLI Memorandum Number 351-18, which can be obtained from the Adjutant's Office.) The interested reader will find not only a clear definition of the policy but also an annotated bibliography of reference materials and a summary of the steps to follow in preparing a research proposal, conducting a study, and writing a report.

The Board of *Dialog on Language Instruction* would encourage those faculty who obtain the Research Division's assistance with a project to keep our readers informed through interim reports and an article discussing the results.

DLI Memorandum 351 - 18

1. Purpose

This memorandum establishes DLIFLC policies, responsibilities, and procedures for the support, coordination, management, and reporting of faculty and staff research, for the purpose of ensuring that approved research projects are not duplicative, are of substantial value, and are properly designed to produce valid results.

2. Background

The mission of the DLIFLC Research Division (ESR) is to design, develop, coordinate, and carry out research studies in the fields of foreign language testing, curriculum design, cultural awareness, instructional methodology, faculty professional development, program administration, educational technology, and related areas in order to provide information needed to maintain and improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP). DLIFLC faculty and staff members constitute a potential research work force of unprecedented proportions. Part of the mission of the Research Division is to coordinate and support this work force.

3. Scope

This memorandum applies to all DLIFLC personnel who wish to conduct research in foreign language learning, teaching, and testing.

4. Policy

A. The deans of the language schools and the heads of major DLIFLC activities have the authority to approve faculty/staff research projects within their respective schools/major activities, and are responsible for ensuring that approved projects are not unnecessarily duplicative, are of substantial value, and are properly designed to produce valid results.

B. The Research Division assists the school deans and heads of major activities in evaluating proposed projects by receiving and reviewing proposals submitted to it in accordance with the procedures described in this memorandum. As part of its review, the Research Division will determine whether proposed projects will conflict with or otherwise jeopardize projects that are already under way or for which firm plans have been made, and whether proposed projects are unnecessarily duplicative, and will advise deans and major activity heads of its findings, so that appropriate action may be taken (see paragraph 4D, below).

C. A favorable endorsement of a faculty or staff research project by the Research Division will not constitute a request that the proposer be released from normal duties, detailed to ESR, and so forth. Any such requests or actions must be undertaken as separate issues in accordance with established policy.

D. A negative recommendation from ESR will not necessarily preclude the dean or major activity head from approving a project. If the dean or head feels that there are good reasons for conducting the study, he or she will consult the Provost for guidance. However, if the proposed project would jeopardize projects already planned or under way, the dean or head must appeal through the Provost to the Commandant.

E. Proposals will be routed and acted upon as expeditiously as possible. Once a researcher has prepared and submitted a proposal as described in *Procedures and Responsibilities*, (paragraphs 5A [1] through 5A [8], below), each individual or office in the routing chain to the Research Division will add comments and route the proposal to the next individual or office as quickly as possible. (Within each school/major activity the dean/head will determine the desired routing.) The same routing will be followed in reverse order in returning the proposal to the researcher once the Research Division has evaluated it.

F. Two documents useful to both beginning and experienced researchers may be obtained from ESR:

> *Annotated Bibliography of Selected References on Research.* Most of the works described therein are available in the DLIFLC Academic Library.
>
> *Summary of Steps to be Followed by Faculty/Staff Researchers with Detailed Reading Suggestions.* This document outlines the steps involved in initiating and conducting a research project, with specific suggestions regarding the use of the reference materials described in the *Annotated Bibliography*.

G. The findings and documentation of research projects conducted on government time are considered the property of the United States government.

5. Procedures and Responsibilities

To pursue a research project with the assistance of ESR, faculty and staff members will follow the steps given below. See *Annotated Bibliography* and *Summary of Steps* for specific suggestions regarding how to proceed.

A. *The faculty/staff member will:*

1. Become familiar with general principles of conducting educational research.
2. Identify the general topic or area to be investigated and discuss the potential topic with the school/major activity personnel designated by the dean/major activity head.
3. Discuss the topic with the Research Consulting Service of the Research Division (ATFL-ESR) and any other appropriate academic support division(s), e.g., the Curriculum Division (ATFL-DCI-C) if the topic involves curricular issues; the Educational Technology Division (ATFL-DCI-ET) if it involves the application of educational technology, or with the Faculty and Staff Development Division (ATFL-DCI-F) if there are faculty training implications.
4. Conduct a literature review of the area to be investigated.
5. Refine the proposed idea in light of all he/she has read, considering all the components of an effective research proposal.
6. (Optional) Discuss the refined proposal with the Research Consulting Service of the Research Division and any other appropriate academic support division(s).
7. Write a formal proposal which will include:
    a. a statement of the research question, hypothesis, or problem to be investigated;
    b. the expected benefits to be derived from the study;
    c. the results of the literature review; and
    d. the research design and data collection and analysis procedures to be employed in the study.
8. Have colleagues critique the proposal, then revise it as needed and submit it for review and routing to the school/major activity personnel specified by the dean/major activity head.

B. *The school/major activity reviewers will:*

1. Review the proposal for quality, practical significance, impact on operations, and compliance with steps 1–8 in paragraph 5A.
2. Add comments as appropriate, and forward the reviewed

proposal to the Research Division, routing it through any appropriate academic support office(s) for review and comment.

C. *The Research Division will:*

1. Review the proposal in terms of the following three considerations:

- **Topic:**

— Is it sufficiently well defined?

— Does it appear to be practically significant in the DLIFLC or DFLP context?

— Is additional work needed in this area or has the topic been adequately treated in previous research?

- **Operational considerations:**

— Does the proposed project overlap with any existing or planned studies? If so, will those studies be enhanced or compromised if the proposed project is undertaken?

— How intrusive will the proposed study be on normal day-to-day instructional activities or other DLIFLC operations? For example, how large a sample will be required? What will the frequency and extent of data collection activities be? At what point in the training cycle will the proposed study be conducted?

— To what extent is the probable administrative impact justified by the potential informational yield?

- **General clarity and quality of the proposal:**

— Is the problem clearly identified and sufficiently limited in scope?

— Is there adequate evidence of an appropriate review of the literature?

— Are the proposed procedures organized and described clearly?

— Are extraneous variables well controlled by the proposed research design?

— Does the project appear feasible?

— Are other essential research design considerations adequately addressed (for example, timelines, review milestones, etc.)?

— What are the DLIFLC resources needed to conduct the project, and are they adequately justified and clearly specified?

2. Return the proposal to its author through the school/major activity reviewers, with prior routing through any appropriate academic support division(s), with one of the following recommendations:

- **Full endorsement:**

  ESR considers the proposed project to be worthwhile, and the proposer to be adequately prepared to carry it out. ESR's recommendation is that the project be carried out as proposed or with only minimal modifications.

- **Partial endorsement:**

  The proposed project would receive a full endorsement but for the fact that it may jeopardize a study that already exists or for which extensive planning has already been undertaken. ESR's recommendation is that the proposer coordinate with ESR to adjust either the timing, the students involved, or both.

  or

  The proposed project looks promising, but needs additional work. ESR's recommendation is that the proposer rethink certain aspects, consult relevant personnel (including, but not necessarily limited to, personnel in the Research, Curriculum, Educational Technology, and Faculty/Staff Development Divisions), revise the proposal, and resubmit it per Step 8 in *Procedures and Responsibilities*, Section A.

- **Not endorsable:**

  In the opinion of ESR, either the idea proposed has little or no apparent value, or the procedures proposed are not at all likely to be adequate or appropriate. ESR's recommendation is that the proposer:

  a. pick another topic,
  b. rethink the proposed procedures, or
  c. both.

This recommendation may include a suggestion that the proposer:

(1) take one or more courses in how to conduct research before resubmitting proposal, or

(2) enlist the aid of someone who has already done so.

- **Unable to rate:**

  The proposed project may or may not be of potential benefit to DLIFLC, but the proposal is prepared in such a way that ESR reviewer(s) cannot see clearly what is being proposed nor how it is to be accomplished. ESR's recommendation is that the proposer go back to Step 1 (or 2, or 3, or 4) in paragraph A of *Procedures and Responsibilities* and go through the process again.

This recommendation may include a suggestion that the proposer:

(1) take one or more courses in how to conduct research before resubmitting the proposal, or

(2) enlist the aid of someone who has already done so.

D. In conducting the research project the researcher will observe the following procedures:

1. The researcher will carefully document all that goes on in the course of the study, especially the procedures actually used and why any modifications were made to those described in the proposal. As the investigator proceeds with the study, he/she will find if helpful to keep constantly in mind what will need to be included in the research report. (See appropriate references in the *Annotated Bibliography*.)

2. It will be the responsibility of the school/major activity to monitor the progress of the study, and solicit progress reports if and as desired. Upon the request of the school/major activity, the Research Division will:

   a. provide consultation on the conduct of the study and
   b. review any progress reports.

E. In preparing and disseminating the research report, the researcher and the reviewers will observe the following procedure:

1. The researcher will:

   a. Consult relevant references from the *Annotated Bibliography* prior to writing the first draft of the report.

   b. Obtain peer critiques from colleagues and revise the report if necessary.

   c. Submit the report to the school/major activity reviewers for review and comment, revising it if and as necessary.

   d. Prepare or revise the report in accordance with technical guidelines provided by the Directorate of Evaluation and Standardization (ES) if the report is being submitted for consideration as an officially endorsed DLIFLC research report.

   e. Submit the final draft or the report through channels to the Security Division and the Command Group for a sensitivity review prior to disseminating the report, briefing it at non-DLIFLC meetings, or submitting it for publication.

2. The school/major activity reviewers will:

   a. Review the draft report, add any comments or suggestions, and return it to the author(s) for revisions if desired.

   b. Forward the reviewed/revised report with comments, if any, to the Research Division, through any appropriate staff support division(s).

   c.. Receive the reviewed report from the Research Division and ensure that the researcher considers ESR comments and prepares a revised draft if necessary.

   d. Ensure that required sensitivity reviews are performed and that ESR receives a file copy of the completed report.

   e. Distribute copies of the report to all appropriate DLIFLC activities.

3. The Research Division will:

   a. Review the report for technical quality and for the practical significance of its findings, add appropriate comments, including recommendations regarding revisions to and ultimate distribution of the report, and return it to the author through the school/major activity reviewers, with prior routing through any appropriate staff support division(s).

   b. Assist school deans and major activity heads in bringing to the attention of the Provost and Commandant any findings that appear to have school/major activity-wide or post-wide implications.

   c. Provide technical guidelines regarding the preparation of reports being considered for publication as officially endorsed DLIFLC research reports.

Annotated Bibliography of Selected References on Research

American Psychological Association. (1983). *Publication manual.* 3rd ed. Washington, D. C.: Author.

> This is one of the style manuals most frequently consulted for guidance in the preparation of research report manuscripts. It contains a great deal of helpful information regarding the content and organization of a manuscript, the use of headings and abbreviations, the preparation of statistical tables and charts, the handling of bibliography and in-text references, etc.

Brown, J. D. (1988). *Understanding research in second language learning: A teacher's guide to statistics and research design.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

> Designed for language teachers with no previous background in statistics, this book is an excellent introduction to the skills and processes needed to critically read and understand research in language learning. The author provides a highly readable overview of the basic concepts of statistics; the structure and organization of statistical research reports; statistical logic; and how to interpret tables, charts, and graphs.

Campbell, D. T. & Stanley, J. C. (1966). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research.* Chicago: Rand McNally.

> This is the classic work on research design which appeared in the *Handbook of Research on Teaching* published in 1963 by the American Educational Research Association. The factors jeopardizing internal and external validity are summarized, and numerous designs are analyzed in terms of how well each one controls those factors.

Clark, J. L. D. (1971). *Leadership in foreign language education: The foreign language teacher and research.* New York: Modern Language Association Materials Center.

> This monograph is an excellent entry point for the foreign language teacher who wishes to become involved in research on language teaching and learning. It includes sections on locating, evaluating, and conducting research. Because of its appeal and usefulness, it was reprinted (pp. 51-73) in Gerald Green (Ed.), *Foreign Language Education Research: A Book of Readings*, published in Chicago by Rand McNally in 1973.

Davitz, J. R. & Davitz, L. L. (1977). *Evaluating research proposals in the behavioral sciences*: A guide. (2nd enlarged ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

> This small volume is an excellent how-to manual to guide researchers in the development of research proposals. As the authors state in their introduction, "This guide was prepared for students who are beginning to plan independent research studies. It is a summary of common points considered in evaluating a research proposal and is designed primarily as a framework within which a student might review his work." It should be consulted both before, during, and after the development of a proposal.

Kerlinger, F. N. (1986). *Foundations of behavioral research.* (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

> This volume is arguably the most authoritative and widely acknowledged reference work on educational research, and is often used as a basic text in graduate courses. As the author states in his preface, "This is a book on scientific behavioral research. Above everything else, it aims to convey the exciting quality of research in general, and in the behavioral sciences and education in particular.... The writing of this book has been strongly influenced by the book's major purpose: to help students understand the fundamental nature of the scientific approach to problem solution.... Thus this book, as its name indicates, strongly emphasizes the *fundamentals* or *foundations* of behavioral research" [emphasis original] Although this text is ideally suited for use with a live instructor, beginning researchers will profit from a careful reading of its preface and its first three chapters, and should expect to refer to it repeatedly over the years if they intend to be seriously involved in conducting research.

Krathwohl, D. R. (1965). *How to prepare a research proposal.* Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Bookstore.

> This short but extremely useful monograph was prepared by the author for use by his students in the preparation of their thesis proposals. It is focused particularly on the production of proposals seeking grant monies from federal agencies, and thus it contains several sections not found in other how-to sources, e.g., estimating budgetary and other resources needed, setting milestones, etc. In addition, it is filled with detailed, step-by-step guidance with respect to the many issues that must be considered in the preparation of any research proposal. (See further

comments in the annotated bibliography for the Locke and Spirduso volume below.)

Lett, J. A., Jr. (1983). Research: What, why, and for whom? In Charles J. James, (Ed.), *Practical applications of research in foreign language teaching.* ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, Vol. 14, pp. 9-49. Skokie, IL: National Textbook.

> Like the Brown text and the Clark monograph, this chapter is designed to make the principles and techniques of foreign language education research both meaningful and accessible to professional language teachers who have not been formally trained as researchers. It provides an introduction to the nature, tools, and terminology of the research process; illustrates various kinds of foreign language education research; and offers guidelines to help readers become critical consumers of published research.

Locke, L. F. & Spirduso, W. W. (1976). *Proposals that work: A guide for planning research.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

> Like the Davitz and Davitz volume, this book is a guide for the preparation of research proposals. By comparison, it is more overtly focused on the world of the graduate student who is preparing a thesis proposal for his or her advisor, whereas the Davitz and Davitz work is written from a more general perspective. However, the Locke and Spirduso approach has several appealing features: The first of its three parts provides an overview of the function and tasks of a proposal, the second part leads the student through twenty steps in the development of the proposal, and the third part provides three sample proposals which are systematically examined for strengths and weaknesses. Finally, Appendix A offers a set of criteria used for judging acceptability of thesis proposals that can easily be extended to apply to proposals for research to be done in the DLI context as well.

Millman, J. & Gowin, D. B. (1974). *Appraising educational research: A case study approach.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

> This is a book of readings whose purpose is to assist readers in developing critical appraisal skills. To that end, it contains eight research reports, each followed by a critique consisting of the questions a research professor might ask about the study, a series of possible answers, and a discussion of each answer. Although none of the eight articles deals with foreign language learning, the serious student of research in foreign language education may eventually want to spend some time with this book, testing his or

her understanding of the research process and sharpening his or her insights and critical judgments.

Moore, G. W. (1983). *Developing and evaluating educational research.* Boston: Little, Brown.

As the author states in his preface, this book was written to meet " ... practitioners' needs for a clear, straightforward description of how to understand and evaluate research." Its content has been used with both undergraduate and graduate students, and it includes a number of features designed to help students comprehend and retain the information, such as overview questions, summaries, lists of key terms, and performance objectives. Although designed as an aid in understanding and consuming research literature, the book's organization is such that it lends itself well to use as a guide in the writing of reports on completed research as well.

Tuckman, B. W. (1988). *Conducting educational research.* (3rd ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

This text is perhaps the most comprehensive and comprehensible how-to volume in this selected bibliography. It addresses most of the topics usually found in introductory research texts, and includes two chapters not found in other works that would appear to be especially useful in the DLI context. These are Chapter 3, "Reviewing the Literature;" and Chapter 14, "Conducting Evaluation Studies." (The *second* edition [1978] of this text contains another chapter of particular interest: Chapter 13, "Doing Classroom Research.") This second volume also lends itself well to self study: Each chapter begins with a statement of learning objectives and concludes with 'competency test exercises.' Appendices include four sample studies as well as 'performance evaluation worksheets' to be used in evaluating the sample studies, and answers for the exercises and worksheets.

Summary of Steps to Be Followed by Faculty/Staff Researchers with Detailed Reading Suggestions

> *NOTE: The "Steps" referred to in this document are those cited in paragraph A of DLI Memorandum 351-18,* Support and Coordination of Faculty and Staff Research. *The works cited are those given in the* Annotated Bibliography of Selected References on Research, *available from ATFL-ESR.*

Preparing the Research Proposal

Step 1: Become familiar with the general principles of conducting educational research:

- Read carefully Clark, Lett, Chapter 1 of Tuckman, and Chapter 1 of Moore.
- Skim Campbell and Stanley, and Davitz and Davitz.
- Skim introductory matter and tables of contents of Kerlinger, Moore, and Tuckman, so as to become acquainted with their scope and applicability throughout the research process.

Step 2: Identify the general topic or area to be investigated and discuss the potential topic with the school/major activity personnel specified by the dean/major activity head.

- Read carefully Chapter 2 of Tuckman.

Step 3: Discuss the topic with the Research Consulting Service of the Research Division (ATFL-ESR) and any other appropriate academic support division(s), e.g., the Curriculum Division (ATFL-DCI-C) if the topic involves curricular issues; the Educational Technology Division (ATFL-DCI-ET) if it involves the application of educational technology; or the Faculty and Staff Development Division (ATFL-DCI-FS) if there are faculty training implications.

Step 4: Conduct a literature review of the area are to be investigated.

- Read carefully Chapter 3 of Tuckman and Chapter 4 of Moore.
- Review Part II of Clark.
- Request assistance from the Academic Library in conducting an automated information search of both periodical and non-periodical literature.

Step 5: Refine the proposed idea in light of all you have read, considering all components of a research proposal.

- Consult the charts on page 12 of Lett and pp. 14-15 of Locke and Spirduso.

- Skim Davitz and Davitz, Krathwohl, and Locke and Spirduso.
- Consult Kerlinger as needed.

Step 6: (Optional) Discuss the proposal with the Research Consulting Service of the Research Division and any other appropriate academic support division(s).

Step 7: Write a formal proposal that will include (1) a statement of the research question, hypothesis, or problem to be investigated; (2) the results of the literature review; and (3) the research design and data collection and analysis procedures to be employed in the study.

- Read carefully Davitz and Davitz, Krathwohl, and Appendix A of Locke and Spirduso.
- Refer to Kerlinger, Moore, and Tuckman, as appropriate.

Step 8: Have colleagues critique the proposal; then revise it and submit it for review and routing to the school/major activity personnel specified by the dean/major activity head.

Conducting the Study

Refer to any and all references as time and needs permit. This would be a good time to study the sample research reports in Millman and Gowin and in Appendix A of Tuckman.

Preparing the Research Report

- Consult the chart on page 35 of Lett, and study carefully Chapter 13 of Tuckman.
- Consult all of Moore.
- Review your draft in light of the suggestions in Part II of Clark, "Guidelines for the Consumer" in Lett, and relevant portions of the other references with which you will have by now become familiar.
- Consult and follow a recognized style manual in the actual preparation of your manuscript. For research reporting, many writers and publishers prefer the style manual of the American Psychological Association, which includes helpful information regarding the preparation of statistical tables and charts as well as an easy-to-use system for handling bibliography and in-text references.

Point of Contact

For more information, contact DR. GORDON JACKSON, Educational Researcher, Educational Research Division, Evaluation and Standardization, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Telephone: (408) 647-5675.

Dialog on Language Instruction
1992, Vol. 8, Nos. 1 & 2, pp. 77-80

Motivation by Peer Tutoring

Albert Arellano
School of Romance Languages

Motivation is so important in foreign language learning that every possible way of promoting it should be explored. Against the background of the competitive nature of Anglo-American culture, educators are beginning to consider the advantages of cooperative learning at all levels of education. In competitive learning, each student is in a race for better grades against the others, who are more rivals than classmates. In cooperative learning, classmates are members of learning teams helping each other achieve the best ratings for all the members of the team.

In the student team learning method, the students work together to learn and are responsible for their classmates' learning as well as their own. They understand that team goals and team success can only be achieved if all the members of the team learn the subject being taught. The team's work is not done until all the members of the team have mastered the assigned materials. The classroom is organized into congenial groups of four students. After the material is presented, the students can either break into specialization groups or into tutoring pairs, depending on the type of material to be mastered. The task completed, the students are given a quiz if an evaluation is required, or they participate in a games tournament if further reinforcement is necessary. "This ensures that strong, average and weak students are equally motivated to do their best, and the contributions of all members are significant" (Bellas, 1990).

Cooperative small group learning applied to foreign languages has proved successful for interpersonal communication. In this method, the class is organized in groups of two to six students in order to complete a learning task cooperatively. The learning task requires interaction, reciprocal inter-dependence, and mutual help among the members of the group. The instructor is not a transmitter of materials, but rather a facilitator of learning who encourages cooperation among the students. The peer tutoring technique "is based on raising students' motivation for learning by focusing on cooperation of members within each team, followed by competition among the teams in the class" (Bejarano, 1987).

Because peer tutoring contributes to motivation, it is one of the key techniques in cooperative learning. The students who are already familiar with or have an early grasp of the new material presented in class, can help their classmates achieve mastery. It is known that students excel in clarifying meanings for their classmates. For one thing, the instructor might speak over the students' heads, so they prefer to listen to their classmates speaking at their level of comprehension. This is especially true in foreign language classes taught by foreign-born instructors not yet fully familiar with the subtleties and nuances of the English language. Peer tutoring is doubly rewarding: the tutoring student reinforces his/her own grasp of the material by teaching it to a classmate, and the tutored student benefits from the special coaching. That is, both students become further motivated to learn the target language.

These are instances of directed cooperative learning for which organized teaching/learning materials have been developed. Complementing directed cooperation efforts is spontaneous cooperation, the essence of relationships within the family and other personal forms of association. The military organization, probably the oldest and most universal form of directed cooperation, emphasizes spontaneous cooperation as "the ultimate requisite of victory in battle" (Nisbet, 1968).

It is traditional that the U. S. Armed Forces take care of their own in times of war and peace. One way of carrying out this policy is by promoting teamwork at all levels. The U. S. Marine Corps Detachment at DLI maintains the tradition of taking care of its own: to help marines with their learning tasks after classroom hours, this unit conducts its own supervised study program in the barracks.

That the Marines help each other toward a common goal is to be expected. There are, however, cases of spontaneous cooperative learning across services that generate motivation among DLI students. For example, in a Spanish class that recently graduated with record-breaking results, a Marine officer was instrumental in motivating a Navy student to succeed in his language learning attempts. Being self-motivated about the task ahead, the Marine officer had decided to acquire a good command of the Spanish language. For one thing, he knew what country he was going to and what he was going to be doing there after graduation. Further, he knew that he needed the Spanish language to carry out his assigned mission; he had achievement motivation, the behavior shown by an individual with a tendency to achieve success and avoid failure in relation to a standard of excellence (Atkinson, 1968). Consequently, the officer took every opportunity to practice Spanish during class and after class, availing himself of the language learning facilities at the Academic Library and everywhere else. It was also obvious that he was trying to 'infect' his classmates with the same enthusiasm. In contrast, a young seaman recruit who sat to the left of the Marine officer, only knew that after language school he was going to another school for further training. His lack of motivation was evident on the first evaluation, and he was placed in the remedial program.

In the classroom, some spontaneous learning activity became evident between the officer and the seaman whom he had befriended and for whom he had taken a kind of responsibility in the learning process. When the seaman could not answer the instructor's questions in Spanish, the officer would gently place his big open hand on the nape of the seaman's neck and proceed to focus him on what the question was about and how it should be answered. The self-appointed tutor was especially helpful in having his pupil grasp fine grammatical points, such as the use of the Spanish verb *gustar* equivalent to the English verb "to please," *Eso me gusta*, "that pleases me," or the more common "I like that."

When the class split into pairs to negotiate some learning task, the officer would figure out the solution in his head and then guide the seaman to work out his share of the problem. When the officer was paired with the classmate to his right, an Airman who was usually the same level as the officer, would go right ahead to work out the problem with his partner. Being congenial and always ready to smile, the officer won the cooperation of the seaman, who accepted his spontaneous tutoring and, in fact, was glad to have been adopted as a pupil by an officer. With the steady prompting and tutoring of the officer, the seaman was motivated enough to make progress in Spanish, and in due time was taken out of the remedial program. By the end of the course, the seaman was so intent in achieving a good rating that, on his own, he asked the instructor for extra practice before class in preparation for the proficiency oral interview. He was showing some of the enthusiasm displayed by his tutor. On graduation day, the officer was satisfied to see his adopted pupil receive his diploma with the rest of his outstanding class.

Student officers at DLI act as classroom monitors and it is only natural for them to lead their classmates in spontaneous cooperative learning activities, such as peer tutoring. As a result of the motivation for language learning created by peer tutoring, the student attrition rate is bound to be reduced further.

At any point of the language learning process, DLI students working together renew their commitment to the task, saying, to paraphrase Benjamin Franklin: Let's stick together so we won't get stuck separately.

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Author

ALBERT ARELLANO, Training Instructor, Spanish Department A, School of Romance Languages, Defense Language Institute. Specialization: student motivation.

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Developing Listening Skills. (1989.) By Shelagh Rixon.
London: Macmillan. Pp. vii, 136, paperbound.

Reviewed by EVA M. MORAVEC, EST, DLI

All those teachers who have been praying for a listening comprehension "cookbook" can breathe a sigh of relief. Their prayers have been answered in Rixon's slim volume **Developing Listening Skills**, published as part of the *Essential Language Teaching Series*. Rixon's style is non-technical and almost totally jargon-free. In the introduction she explains that various terms have been interpreted in so many ways that she prefers to avoid buzz-words such as 'authentic,' 'semi-authentic,' or 'semi-scripted.'

In Chapter 1, differences between real life and classroom listening are outlined. In Chapter 2, different types of listening materials—depending on the purpose of the listening activity—are discussed. Chapter 3 addresses the issue of how and where to get materials. Chapter 4 offers a brief overview of psycholinguistic theory (free of jargon) and its implications for teaching listening skills, with stress on the training of memory for longer retention of heard information. This chapter offers a rationale for various techniques used in the rest of the book. Chapters 5 and 6 deal with the sound system and prosodic features of the English language. Chapter 7 provides some basic guidelines on assessing the level of difficulty of listening passages when preparing graded materials. The remaining chapters deal with practical applications for the listening lesson. Chapter 8 offers suggestions for planning a listening lesson, inclusive of pre-listening and follow-up activities. Chapter 9 deals with the actual management of a listening lesson; Rixon makes many recommendations for observing students' reactions to the listening activities. The next three chapters (10–12) categorize listening exercises for different aspects of the English language (grammar, vocabulary, phonetics, etc.). Chapter 13 offers advice on how to plan listening into a language program, while Chapter 14 deals with the problem of encouraging students to listen by themselves, outside the classroom.

The arrangement of this handbook is a progression from theoretical concepts and acquisition of materials (1-4) to improving listening through better understanding of the English sounds (5-7) and designing a listening lesson (8-9). Through exercises, three chapters (10-12) address different aspects of the language and listening for different purposes. The two concluding chapters (13-14) are full of practical help: how to set up a successful program and how to get students involved in listening in their free time.

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According to Rixon, the task of a teacher in a listening class is to prepare the students for coping with listening in real-life situations where they would have a specific purpose in mind. This purpose affects the student's level of motivation and choice of listening strategies (Brown & Yule, 1983). These strategies have to be taught both for oral production and for comprehension. A class should include extensive listening for pleasure as well as intensive listening, as a challenge to the students. The teacher is advised to remind students about using skills from their first language (L1) where the listening process has been internalized and they have developed tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty (Chastain, 1988). Rixon subscribes to the view that listening is no longer considered a passive skill, although it remains unobservable. The mind is viewed as an information processing system (Garnham, 1985). Listeners have to be taught to become actively involved in the communication process using their background knowledge from L1 (Anderson & Lynch, 1988). This process consists of at least four components: *discrimination of sounds*; *concentration on meaning*; *use of auditory memory*; and *ability to comprehend*. Any listening task should be provided in a context where the student is able to work at a pragmatic and discourse level of the language.

Students have to be taught to rely on their top-down processing skills in order not to get frustrated by every unknown word encountered in the text; they must learn to listen for the message. This message is arrived at through three interrelated levels of processing (Richards, 1983): *identifying propositions* (what the speaker says), *interpreting illocutionary acts* (what the speaker means), and *activating real-world knowledge of phatic talk* (formulaic) *and referential talk* (activating referents from past experiences). The teacher should also build confidence in students by reminding them of their strategies in L1 where on a daily basis they tolerate vagueness and ambiguity, make deductions from context, infer meanings of unfamiliar words, and draw conclusions not present in the linguistic input (Rivers, 1981). Skills taken for granted in L1 need to be developed in second language (L2) (Dunkel, 1991). To recreate this real-life use of language, tasks must be realistic and integrate several skills. There is a trend away from emphasizing testing, toward emphasizing teaching, and this results in a listening-and-doing orientation where there is less stress on recall of details (Morley, 1990a). The teacher is expected to build in a student awareness of speech acts and discourse functions in specific settings. This can be achieved through specially designed materials which are developed on the following principles: (a) *relevance to learners*; (b) *applicability to real life*; (c) *listening tasks*; and (d) *meaningful outcomes* (Morley, 1990a). Grading of materials and providing comprehensible input for the learner is very important (Glisan, 1988).

The skills needed for processing are complex and many behaviors are brought to bear on real-world listening. These are listed in Lund's (1990) taxonomy as: (a) *identification*; (b) *orientation*; (c) *main idea comprehension;* (d) *detail comprehension*; and (e) *full comprehension*. However, if we provide the student with comprehensible input, we also need to help him develop such skills as the ability to interpret fragments of speech, to listen for clues in what is said, and to develop sensitivity to what is not said. The teacher must always bear in mind that it is essential to provide a variety of tasks and exercises to reduce student anxiety and lower affective filters. Recent psycholinguistic research has focused on the steps involved in the processing of speech. Fluent listeners employ such strategies as predicting, ignoring and selecting, discrepancy monitoring, and comprehension checking. During this process there is an interplay between the listeners' interest, knowledge structures, and comprehension of spoken discourse (Dunkel, 1986).

The concept of the self-access, self-study learning center is recommended in Chapter 14. Success in language study requires practice outside the classroom (in the library and target language community). Morley (1990b), for example, addressed three different concepts of self-study: (a) *a listening across curriculum as a part of every class*; (b) *a listening across the day in a full range of school contexts*; and (c) *a listening in the 'backyard' (in a wide range of second language contexts).* These aspects of the listening comprehension process, which have been topics of recent research, are represented in theory and carried over into practice throughout Rixon's guide.

Developing Listening Skills is intended for teachers and teacher trainees. It not only provides guidance on how a class should be structured and conducted, but also explains why a particular sequence should be followed. Theoretical discussion is limited and related to the exercises recommended for use in class. Although this resource handbook was developed for teaching ESL, many of the activities, suggestions, and ideas are not language-specific, and thus can be used by teachers of foreign languages.

This handbook is useful in many respects. First, it provides guidance in the selection and grading of texts for pre-listening and post-listening activities. Further, it identifies the stages one should go through in class to present a listening exercise. Also provided are solutions for recurring listening problems which are encountered by students of English as a second language; many examples of activities are offered that lead to the improvement of listening skills. There is guidance as well in setting up a program and selecting materials, or developing new materials.

Two further strengths of **Developing Listening Skills** are its cross-referencing and a section, *Further Reading*, with recommendations for in-depth study of specific issues or problems.

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I recommend this handbook to anybody who is serious about helping students to develop better listening skills and becoming a better teacher in the process.

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Listening In Action. By Michael Rost.
(1991.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. Pp. 162. $17.50, paperbound.

Reviewed by ROBERT S. SMITH, DSL, DLI

Listening In Action by Michael Rost is a collection of exercises and activities designed to develop listening skills and language skills through listening activities. It is part of an *In Action* Language Teaching Methodology Series (C. Candlin, ed.). Written for teachers of English as a second language, much of it can, however, be adapted for teachers of any second or foreign language.

Rost begins his book with an introduction that explains his attitudes and goals. He claims his book is active in three ways: It "stresses that listening is an active process ... that listening plays an active part in language learning ... and (the book) features the teacher as an active 'researcher' of listening development." Teachers using **Listening In Action** would have the following goals:

- To help their learners become more active in developing listening skills.
- To help their learners utilize opportunities both inside and outside the classroom for becoming better listeners and better language learners.
- To improve their teaching by exploring with their students the process of learning to listen.

Rost goes on to give his definition of listening, explains how that changes with situations and purposes, and gives very specific advice. His "Principles for Developing Listening Ability" set the tone for the entire book:

1. Listening ability develops through face-to-face interaction.
2. Listening develops through focusing on meaning and trying to learn new and important content in the target language.
3. Listening ability develops through work on comprehension activities.
4. Listening develops through attention to accuracy and analysis of form.

The author encourages teachers to use the target language in class, to introduce other speakers of the target language to students, and to encourage students to become independent. The activities themselves follow the guideline set forth in the introduction: "Help the students focus their attention; set the task; let the students do the task; evaluate the task; and provide a followup."

The activities are divided into four sections: *Attentive Listening*, defined as responsive listening, in which students listen and then give short responses; *Intensive Listening*, with emphasis on language form in realistic settings; *Selective Listening*, focusing on the purpose for listening; and *Interactive Listening*, in which learners become active participants in interaction. The four sections can be used in sequence, but Rost suggests that they be used interactively; that is, activities should be drawn from each section according to the students' needs at any given time. The activities are marked according to the level and age of the target students, but can be adapted for different levels.

Rost ends his introduction by giving directions on how to use *Listening In Action*, with an explanation of how to maintain and use a teacher's diary. There is also a reading list which contains recent publications on listening and related topics.

Following is a list of activities, one from each section of the book, and a brief description. The activities follow the format suggested by these titles: Level; Student's age; Purpose; Text Type; Preparation; In Class; Variation; Links (includes follow-up); and Teacher's Diary.

An activity suggested for *Attentive Listening* is "Questions, Please," in which "students ask questions in order to elicit the telling of a story." The difficulty level depends on the story itself, and the students' level of familiarity with the plot. It is suggested that repeated use of this activity makes it increasingly successful.

For *Intensive Listening*, Rost offers the activity "Say it again." In this exercise, students listen to a tape (video or audio), and try to repeat short segments exactly as they heard them, using the same words, pronunciation and inflection.

In *Selective Listening*, there is a familiar activity, "Cues game," which is remarkably like Password. This activity was adapted to an intermediate Russian class and worked quite well.

The *Interactive Listening* section has a good exercise called "Group survey," in which students do opinion and preference polls. Variations can include biographical surveys accompanied with preference grids. Students then describe themselves or each other according to the data.

Rost's philosophy of listening is outlined in the introduction. He asks first, "What are the component skills in listening?" and then, "What does a listener do?" As component skills, he lists:

- Discriminating between sounds;
- Recognizing words;
- Identifying pragmatic units: expressions and sets of utterances which function as whole units to create meaning;
- Connecting linguistic cues to paralinguistic cues (intonation and stress) and to nonlinguistic cues (gestures and relevant objects in the situation) in order to construct meaning;

- Using background knowledge (what we already know about the content and the form) to predict and then to confirm meaning; and
- recalling important words and ideas.

Rost defines listening ability as "the integration of these skills." It is accompanied by the "underlying action for successful listening [which is] decision making." The decisions a listener must make are:

- What kind of situation is this?
- What is my plan for listening?
- What are the important words and units of meaning?
- Does the message make sense?

The theoretical explanation in Rost's introduction is clear and concise, and very interesting, but does not have to be read before using the exercises. While Rost doesn't say this in his introduction, it is obvious from the activities that he realizes listening cannot be separated from writing and speaking as part of the interactive listening process. His belief that there are different types of listening, and the accompanying belief that listening is an active process, are the driving forces behind the activities.

This book can be extremely useful for teachers who agree with the two beliefs just stated, but have difficulty coming up with activities that support those beliefs. Not all of the activities are useful for all classes, nor are they all adaptable to teaching languages other than English. In some cases, this adaptation could only be made with the assistance of a native speaker. However, there is such a wide range of imaginative, engaging activities that there is something for everyone. While most of us might like to claim that we are inventive enough to come up with interactive, fun, productive exercises day after day, the truth is it helps to have a resource pool of things-to-do. Rost's **Listening In Action** is, more than anything else, a great addition to any language teacher's resource pool.

Acknowledgment

Special thanks to Dr. Kathleen M. Bailey and Dr. Gary Buck of Monterey Institute of International Studies for editorial and content assistance.

Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References*. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 16 (1)*, pp. 93-95.

Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g. (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Notes should be used for substantive information only, and note they should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript. Subsequently they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes*.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

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Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

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should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An author's name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLI), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

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JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306. Interests: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the Xerox 6085 which is available in all Schools and Directorates. Users of the Xerox may contact Ani Frazier (5656) for information on using the footnote option as well as information on using tabs for bibliographic style. Authors should submit both a floppy disc and a paper copy of the manuscript. If the manscript is produced on a computer other than a Xerox, the file should be downloaded as an ASCII file for submission on floppy.

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Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their names on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3"x5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DCI-C (Editor), Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, Commandant
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ATFL: DCI - C
ATTN: Editor, *Dialog on Language Instruction*
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Lidia Woytak
Defense Language Institute

Some individuals achieve the highest distinctions from society, yet seem to pass unnoticed in mundane surroundings. That has not been the case with Wilga M. Rivers. The moment this energetic, friendly lady entered a popular fast-food establishment, Carl's, Jr., she had two food servers and even the manager at her service. They had all promptly become learners of "nutri-languages," busily figuring out which salad dressing contained the smallest amount of sodium. Through skimming, scanning, reading for specific information, gisting, and problem solving, everyone got involved in a lively conversation. While one clerk was scanning the labels for data on sodium, the middle-aged manager and another young clerk were trying to decide whether better flavor would justify a slightly higher sodium content, a difference of only a few milligrams. Inconsistencies in the texts of the labels made the calculation harder to do. Finally, the manager and the clerk proudly recommended Caesar Salad Dressing as the best solution. "It may have a few extra calories," declared the manager. "But," added the clerk, "you can't beat the taste."

How had these Carl's, Jr. employees become so involved in their customer's problem? What motivated them? Who was this captivating customer who had transmuted the restaurant into a site of learning? Did the staff know they were dealing with a Harvard professor? Very unlikely. The restaurant is located thousands of miles from the professor's home and the visit was unplanned. Who, then, is this woman who so energizes everyone around her?

She is Professor Emerita of Romance Languages and Literatures at Harvard University. She has been actively involved in foreign language education for over half a century. Her name is Wilga M. Rivers.

A native of Australia, Professor Rivers received her Ph.D. from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, her M.A. from Melbourne University, a *Licence ès Lettres* from the University of Montpelier (France), and an Honorary Doctor of Letters from Middlebury College. For 15 years at Harvard University, Professor Rivers coordinated the French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Romanian language programs and supervised a teacher development program. In addition, she taught courses and seminars on the linguistic and psychological bases of language teaching. In addition, Rivers has been involved in the English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programs at the university. Prior to Harvard, she taught at the University of Illinois, Columbia, and Monash University in Australia. Professor Rivers, an international scholar, has taught French and English in many countries, including England, France, Australia, and India. She taught *Applied Linguistics* and *Psychology of Language Teaching* in Australia, Thailand, Egypt, and Japan. Since her retirement, she has reduced her workload, teaching a Harvard extension course, *Linguistic and Psychological Bases of Language Teaching,* and continuing to direct some Ph.D. dissertations for the department.

Throughout her career, Rivers has been actively involved in national and international foreign language organizations and publications such as the Linguistic Society of America, the American Association of Teachers of French, the Modern Language Association, the National Association of Language Laboratories, Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages, the American Association for Applied Linguistics, the American Association of University Supervisors and Coordinators of Foreign Language Programs, and the Australian Society of Authors. Professor Rivers is Associate Editor of *Standpoints* and a member of the Editorial Board of *Issues in Foreign Language Program Direction.*

Professor Rivers has lectured on foreign language education not only in the United States, but also in Canada, England, Germany, France, Italy, Belgium, Greece, Monaco, Australia, Thailand, Phillipines, Egypt, Japan, Israel, India, Puerto Rico, Dominican Republic, Trinidad, Mexico, Russia, and Spain.

Wilga M. Rivers is the author of such classics in the field of foreign language education as *Communicating Naturally in a Second Language: Theory and Practice in Language Teaching* (Cambridge University Press, 1983), *Teaching Foreign-Language Skills* (University of Chicago Press, 1968, 1981), *The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher* (University of Chicago Press, 1964, 1977), and *Speaking in Many Tongues* (Cambridge University Press, 1983). Rivers also authored several practical guides to the teaching of French, German, Spanish, English, and Hebrew. Additionally, she edited and co-authored *Interactive Language Teaching* (Cambridge University Press, 1987), *Teaching Languages in College: Curriculum and Content* (National Textbook, 1992), and *Changing Patterns in Foreign Language Programs* (Newbury House, 1972). Her books have been translated into Japanese, Romanian, Finnish, Portuguese, German, and Russian.

Rivers has written 75 articles dealing with such topics in foreign language education as goals and objectives, listening and hearing, comprehension and production, and patterns and creativity, as well as learning and teaching, interactive teaching, the use of the language laboratory, teacher-student relations, foreign language departments, reading, pronunciation, acquisition, communication, mental representations, motivation, learners' needs, testing, curriculum, individualized instruction, memory, and cooperative learning. These articles were published in a variety of scholarly journals including *TESOL Quarterly, Foreign Language Annals, Modern Language Journal, Language Learning, Georgetown Roundtable Monographs (GURT), English Teaching Forum,* Le Francais dans le Monde, *ADFL Bulletin, Canadian Modern Language Review, Northeast Conference Reports,* Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée, *Babel, and Dialog on Language Instruction.*

Professor Wilga M. Rivers is the recipient of the first ACTFL Anthony Papalia Award for Excellence in Teacher Education, the Nelson Brooks Award for Distinguished Leadership in Foreign Languages (1984), the Distinguished Service Awards of the Massachusetts Foreign Language Association (1983), and the New York State Association of Foreign Language Teachers (1972), and the first Florence Steiner Award for Leadership in Foreign Language Education (1974) by ACTFL. Additionally, in 1968 Rivers was awarded a *Bourse de Séjour* by the French Government. Professor Rivers is listed in the *Directory of American Scholars, Who's Who of the World's Women, the Directory of International Biography, and Who's Who in America.*

In September, 1992, the Defense Language Institute invited Professor Wilga M. Rivers to deliver a lecture, "Recognition, Retention, Retrieval: The Three R's of Vocabulary Use," and conduct a workshop, "Theory and Practice of Interactive Language Learning and Teaching." Finally, the distinguished visitor granted an interview for *Dialog on Language Instruction.*

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W: Yesterday, during your workshop here, "Theory and Practice of Interactive Language Learning and Teaching," you mentioned that you became fascinated with foreign languages when you were a girl.

R: At age 11, I was determined to learn French. That was when I entered 6-year high school, where I could learn a language and algebra. One day as I was standing in the yard among all the new students, the principal said, "Those who want to do French go over there, and those who want to do German here, and those want to do Latin go over there." As the students were forming these groups, I rushed into the French group. I remember one of the teachers said, "There are too many people in the French group. Would some move over to the German." I tried to hide behind a tall girl, so no one would send me over to the German group, otherwise I might very well have ended up being a German teacher, which would not have been that astonishing because my ancestry is one-quarter German. But there was no one in the family except for some great-uncles who still talked to each other sometimes in German. I often wondered why I chose French. It seemed to me that it was either because I had been reading the *Scarlet Pimpernel* or because my father, who was 65 when I was born, who was quite elderly, and whom we adored, told us the story of how, when he was 12, his family went back to England and around 1865 he tried to get into the British Navy and did not get in because he did not know his French alphabet. This story was told to me from the time I was a small child, so whether in my childhood I decided that I certainly would know my French alphabet, I'm not sure.

W: What was his profession?

R: My father was a manager on a sheep station, a judge at shows, and a property valuer. Afterwards he became a journalist and wrote on subjects related to sheep and cattle.

W: What about your mother?

R: My mother had no education beyond the seventh grade. My grandmother had been a teacher, but she was left a widow with eight children at the end of the 19th century. To support the children in a period when there were no social supports, my mother had to stay home and look after the young ones while her mother taught. So she missed out a lot on education but she was determined that we would go on with our education. When I was 13, my father died. Although we were in very straitened circumstances, she refused utterly to consider our leaving school; we had to keep going as long as we possibly could.

W: In your article "Interaction and Communication in the Language Class in an Age of Technology," you described so vividly French language classes from your childhood. You said, "We sang (and danced as we sang), we acted, we played games, we practiced greetings, we drew and labeled vocabulary posters, and we recited poems" (Rivers, 1990, p. 271). Do you think this type of activity is missing in today's classrooms?

R: At that stage the children are between childhood and adolescence. You have to make the language interesting, exciting, and very active. The person who trained me, Wilfred Frederick—I dedicated *Speaking in Many Tongues* to him—enthused us in the early days of our training about active participatory methods. We followed in his footsteps. It was a kind of modified direct method. Children become very enthusiastic when they are actively involved in using the language in enjoyable activities.

W: Describing the '40s, you said, "We were long on motivation, enthusiasm, and involvement" (Rivers, 1990, p. 272). Do you think that today teachers and learners are more indifferent?

R: In that article I was explaining that I first started teaching during the war, in a country where we did not have many French speakers. The children of what we call *cowcockies* in Australia, dairy farmers, would come long distances to school, having milked cows early in the morning. They said to me, "The cows don't speak French, Miss," and I had to persuade them that learning French was a useful activity. Since it was 1940, they also said to me, "There is no France any longer, Miss," because of the fall of France, so I had to bring in the Free French newspaper with the Cross of Lorraine and we drew Crosses of Lorraine and followed up the exploits of General De Gaulle. We tried to motivate the children to be enthusiastic and to learn a lot about the language, but we had very little native input. We had no tapes or records or television or satellite, so we made our own fun and games and used the language as best we could with what we had. To keep my knowledge of the language up in this country town, I used to walk along the canals and talk to myself in French—and I would keep a diary in French to keep up the knowledge of the language.

W: I noticed that when you talked about interactive teaching, you talked about not only being involved with a group but also about being *internally* involved. Keeping a diary would be an example of such internal involvement. Let's talk about the Department of Romance Languages at Harvard University. What was the situation when you arrived there?

R: I have to pay considerable tribute to Professor Dwight Bolinger, who was my predecessor, and who at the time of the audiolingual period, along with Jack Stein in the German Department, worked extremely hard to get proper respect for the language teaching program. Bolinger was able to establish the full professorship and to get obligatory complete teacher training as a full-credit course in the Ph.D. program. Afterwards everyone who came into our department to teach had to do a complete language teaching training. Thus, there was always a group of young people who had a common discourse, who all had their minds open to the potential of course development and methodology. In turn, they were able to help the staff in developing a wide range of courses at different levels. When

I came in '74, I decided I had to find out who our students were. I administered a questionnaire to determine what kinds of interests and backgrounds they had and what would be appropriate courses for them. Subsequently I worked hard on diversification. My colleagues and I developed quite an array of four-skill courses. But we also provided other courses devoted purely to communicative competence. Using authentic documents, we offered French and Spanish for business; reading for information; culture and literature-based courses, and courses where they wrote newspapers on computers in collaboration, by modem, with Stanford University. As a result, the enrollments in Romance languages increased by 66 percent over 6 to 8 years. Since Harvard is a small university, we were taking in only 1500 a year and of those we would have as many as 1200 at our first registration in the Romance Languages. The value of our program was validated by an assessment seminar that Harvard ran in the 5 years up to about 1989. Specifically, the administrators tried to find out what Harvard graduates thought about their education, which courses they felt were successful, which ones helped in their careers, and what advice they would give to freshmen. The interesting thing that came out of this seminar was that the most highly valued and appreciated courses in the college were the language courses. Moreover, 94 percent of the graduates said the advice they would give incoming freshmen was to get in there and get on with language study and, if they had already had some language study, to do more study at an advanced level or take another language. This finding of support for foreign language education was so surprising to the survey-takers that they questioned another 800 graduates and conducted personal interviews with 300 students. After they came up with even stronger findings, they tried to find "mysterious and inexplicable reasons." Since they did not come over and discuss it with us, they did not find out what the reasons were: First, we had fully-trained people who really were involved in the language teaching; second, we offered diversification of courses which met the interests of the students. All those findings validated the work that Dwight Bolinger initiated in establishing the teacher training.

W: Yesterday you discussed the role of the individual learner in a group. You say we need to start with the individual learner.

R: Learners tend to form groups. People who think they are making individual choices find that they are part of a large group influenced strongly by social and political currents. We examined learners of a particular generation, each group that came into our courses, and we found that their interests were changing. For instance, when we started diversifying at Harvard, the students were keen on communication and learning about other cultures, and less interested in literature. But over a period of years we found that they were becoming more interested in literature; fewer students were enrolling in the culturally oriented courses. We were making use of active language courses using literature as content, and students were enjoying the literary content. There was a shift in the number of students who cared to go into purely communicative competence-oriented classes. It varied from period to period and we had to find out what any particular group of students wanted from their classes and what society was requiring of them through language. We then had a rationale for our courses, which led us to what we were teaching. Once we had decided *why*, *what*, and *to whom*, we could say, "How are we going to go about teaching this?"

W: Probably you have observed over the years that attitudes toward studying foreign languages have been changing in this country.

R: I find that students now seem to be much more accepting of the necessity to learn languages. When I was at the University of Illinois in the early '70s, I conducted a survey of student attitudes which was published in *Speaking in Many Tongues (1983)*, and interestingly enough, at that time everyone said that the students were against language requirements, but I found that most of them thought that the *other* students were against language requirements. They themselves were not. I found that two-thirds of them were not opposed. The students who were opposed were vocal and those who were not, were quiet. The language requirements at the University of Illinois were sustained with strong votes by the faculty. Students at Harvard voted with their feet: they came into our courses in great numbers. The numbers increased in the '70s and '80s, not only in Romance but also in Slavic and Oriental languages. With German, they had always had the teacher training; in Japanese, Chinese, and Russian they developed new training systems, and put people who cared about a language in charge of that language.

W: You mentioned individual differences. Where do you draw the line when you say that you cannot pay attention to individual differences any more, because the group would suffer.

R: If you have 30 learners, you do not have learners with 30 different motivations; they seem to fall into certain groups. Some are more visually-oriented, some more aurally-oriented; some are interested in reading literature and some in communication. Since they fell naturally into major categories, our diversification worked. We set up courses which enabled those different groups to choose, instead of shoving them into one course. Teachers could keep an eye on the mavericks among them by knowing learners very well.

W: Following a discussion of various teaching methods In "Mental Representations and Language in Action" (1991), you concluded: "What appear to be radically new theoretical premises are, as often as not, variants of ways of looking at the same basic questions about language learning, sometimes with the fresh paint of a new terminology that camouflages their fundamental similarity" (p. 250).

R: With all due respect to James Asher and his Total Physical Response, when I first started teaching, in the days when it was really the direct method, I began with orders in the classroom and children responding: getting up, opening and shutting doors, carrying a rose across the room and putting it on the table, taking a book from the table and putting it under the desk, and so on. I also began in those benighted days with a purely oral presentation, using the phonetic alphabet because it was a part of the direct method. I started by giving them a phonetic representation, in order for them to get proper pronunciation and to encourage them to listen to the sounds. We were doing all those things in the '40s. For instance, in the '40s I had labeled pictures with the vocabulary. Although this idea disappeared for a while, we discovered it again and teachers started getting back to the big wall charts. When individualization came along in 1970, professors at Harvard were surprised that I moved so quickly into giving ideas on individualization, cooperative learning in a small group, and so on. In the '50s, I had been doing all of that in a school in Melbourne with learners in resource centers working in small groups. I used to give them assignments for a month, all kinds of tasks to perform, and we could walk out of the room and leave them for a whole week. They would be working their heads off, because they were interested in working together on these tasks. A lot of these ideas which had disappeared for a while keep coming back. We relied on binding/access, the idea of binding the foreign word and the concept, bypassing the English language. That is the essence of the direct method, a direct association of concept and foreign language terms.

W: Did you use authentic or adapted literature?

R: At Harvard, we were college level, and language through literature classes were mostly at the advanced level. We used authentic French literature: novels, plays, and poems. We searched around and found some poets who used simple language in French, who could be used quite early. Prévert's poems were suitable for use quite early and did not need to be adapted. Similarly, I found some writers who had an expressive but more restricted vocabulary. We found for instance that Colette in French has an extremely wide vocabulary and although the content of her books would seem attractive to students, the breadth of vocabulary made them less accessible. Some other writers like Albert Camus in *The Outsider* ("L'Étranger") or Anatole France, used a less extensive vocabulary. At the elementary level, teachers could select either authentic or adapted texts. They could find passages, chapters, short stories, that are accessible at the earlier levels, so it is a matter of choice. They do not always need to simplify and adapt.

W: Would you encourage students to write poetry?

R: Yes. I had fun with that. French and Spanish classes tried that and they really enjoyed it.

W: Because it is creative.

R: Yes, they could be original, they could be quirky, they could even be obscurantist if they wanted to. They could draw on things they know. They could write a simple poem using the vocabulary of the first 2 or 3 weeks. Raymond Comeau, in an article on interactive language teaching, shows how he did this in the early stages of French, using very simple vocabulary. And there is an article in that book also by Alan Maley on the use of poetry.

W: In your article "Mental Representations and Language in Action" (1991), you stated that foreign language educators need to be aware of the existence of the vital core. Further, you quoted from "Psychology and the Language Learning Process," by A. A. Leontiev (1981, p. 251), in which he calls for "the absolute minimum, the foundations of language without which the learning of any speech activity would be impossible." Could you elaborate on this statement?

R: A kind of core grammar, although not meaning that exactly as it is used in generative grammar, this concept refers to the fundamental functional elements of the language one could not get on without. It could be taught early. Learners could operate within it and they could be quite expressive and then expand as they cover the broader system of the language. I thought that his concept was useful.

W: It would probably be most effective to provide functional elements at the beginning of the course.

R: Yes. Making sure that in the first year they learn enough to express themselves in all sorts of functional ways without feeling restricted, and yet they have not got the whole system because some parts are more complicated than others.

W: Do you think that these elements could be presented in the native language of the learner?

R: Not necessarily. These elements could be presented in authentic material and through inductive ways. It would be just a selection made in relationship to the core materials, the textbook writer or course developer or materials writer would decide what is the absolute minimum, the essential core, of the language to be incorporated in the materials.

W: I read your diary with enjoyment. I admire you for sharing it with others, because not many people dare to reveal what is going on in their heads. I believe more diaries should be written by teachers.

R: I wrote my notes in a very small diary and had my secretary type it up exactly as I had written it. When I submitted it for publication one of the reviews came back saying it was badly written and I observed to a friend that Pepys' diary was not written like Shakespeare; I had just made notes. Keeping a diary was a strain, because I would be out all day and then I would come home and write things down. One person who reviewed it said, "What happened on the 8th and 10th and the 15th?" Well the answer was that I went out late to a party and came home after a convivial evening and I was not in any state to sit there writing a diary. It was interesting to me and I did try to be very honest and put down all my reactions and experiences. Colleagues in literature found it interesting because they felt it stimulated memories of their own experiences. I hope it sensitized some teachers to the problems of non-native speakers.

W: Josef Rohrer, former head of Language Training at the *Bundessprachenamt*, stated in his interview for *Dialog on Language Instruction* (Woytak, 1992, September) that he found your diary very useful. You pointed out in it that while learning Spanish, you learned a great deal from advertisements and street signs. Why did you focus on these materials?

R: I was traveling around and I went off with a Spanish-speaking group to various areas. I am a compulsive reader, so my eyes go to billboards and signs and I try to make something out of them. That is why when I go to Japan I just keep collecting *kanji*. I now know about 120. Every time I go I collect a few more because I just cannot bear to be illiterate in any country. I observed all sorts of interesting features of language through the billboards.

W: You said that it was important for you to be accepted by the group. How can a teacher promote group acceptance of individual learners?

R: Everyone has special hidden gifts. One way would be to know your learners well enough to exploit their strong points. In my methods class, I try to find out early what sorts of experiences students have had, things they have done that would be of interest to the group. Then in class I would say, "You've been in Guatemala, haven't you? Can you tell us something about . . ." or "I see that you have been a music teacher; can you give us some . . ." Through knowing them I tried to bring out their strong points, so even when our students are not perhaps the best language learners, they could be the best illustrators or the best mechanics or something else. By involving them at their strongest point in the interaction, I helped other learners to appreciate their strong points.

W: You pointed out in your diary that you have experienced a mental block while trying to communicate. I think that teachers quite frequently forget about this type of emotional stress.

R: I think that in our own language when we cannot think of a word, it does not astonish us. But we tend to expect learners to always come up with a pure answer, whereas psychologically they are going to be just as impure as they are in the native language.

W: In your diary you say, "I find I need to have questions for clarification and to get them at the moment I need them, if I am to progress. I do not feel at ease if they are left hanging." I think this is a frequent situation in which our learners find themselves in a classroom. They want to ask, and yet there is no time for the questions.

R: On the other hand, in a class one has to be very careful in the one-on-one and individual learning situations. Often the question is answered by something that a teacher does or something in the textbook. Also, teachers have to be careful of learners who take over all of the time that others need; but the teacher should be available to the student to answer personal questions at suitable intervals.

W: Let's talk a little about teacher training. Unlike Harvard, almost all of DLI's teachers are native speakers, but some of them lack formal training in teaching languages. What kind of training would you recommend for them?

R: When I was at Harvard we had a number of native speakers, exchange students from France who came to study in our program, and other people we employed part-time from outside. We insisted that everyone, whether they were exchange students or experienced teachers, do their training with us. The experienced teachers loved it, because they were learning new things and getting re-immersed in the material. People from outside who had no training resented it a little at first but later became enthusiastic. They discovered a whole area of knowledge they did not know existed. For instance, our exchange students, who were often literature people, discovered this was exciting and some of them changed their career goals as a result. Instead of going back to France and finishing their degrees in literature, they would go into French as a foreign language. All teachers need a thorough overview of methodology, the psychological basis of the learning process, the testing principles, in order to read the literature with understanding. Moreover, all teachers must complete a classroom training program. New Harvard teachers taught our classes and we watched them. They videotaped their classes and had weekly course meetings where the main teacher of the course would help them to see what they should be doing and discuss the kinds of activities.

W: Thus, they saw themselves as teachers projecting a certain code of conduct. Do you believe that, let us say for example, Arabic teachers, should model teachers of their native country?

R: Not necessarily modeling an Arabic teacher, but they should be good representatives of Arabic culture. They are teaching American students, so if they emulate an Arab teacher who is teaching Arab students who have always had a certain perception of classroom relations, and they apply this to American students who have completely different ideas on relationships in the classroom, then the American students are frequently going to become hostile because they feel that they are being put down or they are being patronized or bullied or whatever, depending on the culture. I think that the teacher has to model the culture, but not necessarily the classroom culture.

W: Almost every classroom consists of female and male learners working together. In recent years there have been a number of studies on different types of gender anxiety experienced by learners. Do you think that such typology plays a significant role?

R: I would not like to pronounce myself on that topic, because it is so complicated. You could go into the studies done by some of the researchers in women's colleges. Matina Horner of Radcliffe showed that in some coeducational situations women are disadvantaged because in the culture there is a tendency for the man to take over. Women are considered aggressive and sort of unfeminine if they take over in certain cultures. Many studies have shown that the women's colleges have a rationale and that women actually develop more leadership skills within that context. I would think on the whole in the modern day and age in America, where young men and young women are learning to work together in the armed forces and in all aspects of life, these things are changing. Young men are beginning to accept the women as equals and expect them to take the same initiative as the men do. It is different in some other cultures where, for instance, the women are trained not to speak in front of men. Teachers tell me that in mixed ESL classes with certain cultures you cannot get the women to speak if there are men in the room, because it is so unacceptable in their own culture. The situation then becomes difficult.

W: What do you think about proficiency-oriented instruction?

R: I think that all instruction should be proficiency oriented; by that I mean that all instruction should be geared towards helping students to do things with the language and then giving them many opportunities to show what they can do. On the whole, I think that the great thing the proficiency movement in foreign language has brought is to bring a realization that teachers cannot just go on playing around and teaching something or other that learners cannot do anything with. Teachers have to help the learners to be able to use the language in real kinds of ways; learners expect this; this is what they really appreciate. At Harvard, I think we got such high evaluations because all of our classes were oriented towards doing things with the language and showing that they really could do them.

W: Today you talked about testing. Apart from the achievement testing you were describing, at DLI we also have proficiency testing.

R: I could make a distinction between proficiency testing and proficiency-oriented testing. The sort of testing I am interested in is proficiency-oriented testing: any testing aiming to find out what learners can do. But with a proficiency test which tries to see how they measure up to an outside criterion, that is a different question.

W: You also remarked that oral interviews do not always reveal what students know unless they are feeling relaxed and at ease.

R: Exactly. When we were at high school in Victoria, every student in final exams had an oral interview with three professors from Melbourne University. These examiners went around the country and students lined up to go in for 10 or 15 minutes of conversation. When I went in to be tested, I was nervous because it was very important for me to get a scholarship. Unfortunately, sometimes the examiners ran out of ideas, and consequently they were trying to be funny. I was 16, very insecure, trying terribly hard to show how well I could speak French. They asked me whether I would prefer to die by poison, gun, or the rope; this question just threw me off balance.

W: Very depressing!

R: No, I mean here was I, a student trying honestly to think that these serious professors wanted a serious answer. Today, I would look at them and say, "I don't want to die at all, can we change the subject?" But as a 16-year-old in front of outside examiners of prestige I had to sit there and try to think whether I would rather be hung, or shot, or poisoned. While I was doing that, I was not speaking French. I was sitting in silence trying to work out what on earth they wanted me to say. That was not a way in which to elicit output, to see how well I could put together fluent conversation. Therefore, testers have to begin with something that a student feels comfortable with. I have advocated, as they do in Israel, that the students have a series of questions they can prepare ahead of time. They can decide what they want to talk about first, and they can be prepared. It gives them confidence, and then the examiner can draw them out and during that drawing out, which is part of the professional technique, one is able to extend them and see how far they can go, what level they can reach, then return to the lower level. By starting with something where they have confidence, they will come in and they will express themselves and they will think they are doing well, then they are at ease and you can work from there. This is where the whole art of conducting an oral interview is extremely important.

W: Unlike university students, DLI students have a definite mission to perform upon graduation. Moreover, some of them are assigned to be speakers while others are assigned to be listeners. Would you recommend teaching speaking even to listeners?

R: I was just talking with Ray Clifford, who said that they had done research indicating that students who learned to speak as well as listen got higher grades in listening than those who just learned straight listening. Teachers have to look at their learners and see whether at some stage their mission may change, or whether they may need other skills, in which case maybe they can learn listening to a very high degree while learning to express themselves to some extent as well, not be pure listeners. While laying a strong emphasis on learning to read, they can also learn how to pronounce the language, how to listen to it, and how to express themselves. One learning skill reinforces the other. Additionally, I think the reason it is difficult to avoid teaching speaking is that students come in feeling that language has something to do with speaking, and that they are going to be able to speak a language. If you keep them in a situation where they are purely listening, they feel frustrated and say, "I came here to learn the language."

W: I read in your diary that at times you closed your eyes to concentrate on the message when visual stimuli interfered.

R: I found that when you watch television there are so many stimuli—for instance, when I was listening to the conversation, a horse wandered in at the back of the scene and I presumed that something of what was being said was related to the horse, whereas it was not at all. Then I realized this was just to give a feeling that they were in the country. So there were a lot of things distracting me from the actual message between the interlocutors on the screen. Sometimes I found it easier to shut my eyes and listen, not watching the extraneous details.

W: Is it important for a teacher to control visual stimuli?

R: Yes, to make sure that when they are using visual stimuli, there is not a lot of extraneous material. As teachers began to use visual stimuli, numerous studies emphasized this point. I think any television producer knows that the stimulus must be unambiguous, important and relevant. A producer of a news broadcast is not going to have extraneous things going on that distract from the central point of interest that Dan Rather or someone is talking about. I suppose it could be called too much busyness.

W: You pointed out in your lecture that teaching and learning in French are translated with one word . . .

R: *Apprendre*. At lunch, someone said that he thought his father put it well because he used to say, "I learned you that." Indeed, in French the one word can be used for teaching or learning; it consolidates the idea that the two are a reciprocal process. As I said, if you cut into one, you cut into the other; they are not separate things. I am very keen on learning not being opposed to teaching. The two are closely related, so that when you are teaching, you are learning—and when you are learning, you are teaching.

W: Along these lines, the title of your book, *Speaking in Many Tongues*, if translated into Polish, would not be as interesting as it is in English because there is only one word for *tongue* and *language* in Polish, *język*.

R: That comes from the New Testament, Pentecost, when the Holy Spirit came down on the disciples, and they all spoke in different languages. According to the King James version, they spoke in many tongues. When I showed that to some friends, they said I should have titled the preface *Pentecost 1983*, or whatever, because to English speakers that expression is widely known. Also, *glossolalia* is referred to as speaking in tongues. It is a deliberate play on words.

W: On many occasions throughout the years you have expressed your ideas about media. In "Mental Representations and Language in

Action" you quoted Leon Dostert who stated in 1951, "No matter how zealous the students, no matter how well installed the laboratory, no matter how excellent the equipment, the keystone to the effectiveness of the effort is what is put on the tape" (p. 51).

R: I think what he said is true. You can have a beautiful lab, and enthusiastic students, and wonderful equipment, but if there is rubbish on the tape, you have the same old thing: *garbage in and garbage out*.

W: I would add that you may have excellent computers, yet if you do not develop software properly, you are just wasting resources.

R: The same thing is happening with computers that happened with the lab, because the work with them is so time-consuming. Douglas Morgenstern, who has worked with the Athena project at MIT, has said that it took about 150 hours of work to produce a decent hour of taped material for the lab, but it takes 1500 hours of work to produce a decent hour of interactive video. The publishing companies are not going to pay for all this time. They bring in people who are not very experienced, who do not understand the course designs and how the material should be prepared for them. The publishers want them to produce some sort of tapes or computer programs to go with their materials, so anything will do as long as they can advertise that "available with this textbook is the computer software." All that will do is bore the students. We need material which is well conceived, well designed, and on which a sufficient amount of time has been spent by well trained experts. We should have that first-class material, or we probably could do better without it.

W: You talked about the Brigham Young University Montevidisco, the MIT Athena, and the BBC Doomsday projects. What do they have in common?

R: All of them have tried to develop multiple tracks throughout the material, where the students create the story, create the program by the choices they make. In all of these programs the students are given certain choices, and according to the choices they make, they go out into other areas of the material. For instance in Furstenberg's French program in the Athena project, *A la recherche de Philippe*, the device of the answering machine is used. The learners have to find an apartment. They come home and listen to four messages on the answering machine. If they choose one message they go off to look at an apartment in a certain area of Paris, and if they choose the second message they go to visit an aunt, who has decided to go on a holiday to the Bahamas. If they choose the third message they go back to work, because their boss needs them to come back and do some overtime, and the fourth offers yet another option. Learners go into specific areas of the material according to the choices they make. They can go through the material a number of times and come across different areas each time. In Morgenstern's Spanish program, *No Recuerdo*, learners are more or less creating the program as they move through it because they try to solve the mystery of a man who has lost his memory. They do not know who he is except that he has a Spanish accent. Through the program, they are helping to reconstruct his past—whether he was married, had any children, where he lived, what it was like there. The learners are fully involved in the program. It is really interactive because the learner is helping to develop the story.

W: Could you tell us about the impact of current memory studies on foreign language instruction?

R: I do not know how much impact it has had yet, but I think it should have. The mind is extremely dynamic and everything that we encounter in word, touch, smell, or action is entered into the memory network. The concepts are bounced around, connected, and rematched. Thus, the mind can access any piece of knowledge through any part of the system; it does not necessarily have to find the exact track because they interconnect. I may think, "I know there is something I am trying to think of, there is something that makes me think of it," and then I will suddenly say, "Oh yes, that was someone's name." The two important findings in these studies are that information can be accessed through any part of the system, and that all kinds of activities are going on in parallel. This means that one cannot make a clear distinction between what is acquired in the language and what is learned in the classroom. They are going to mix and mingle in the brain, and anything that one has learned from a book or picked up from seeing it on a billboard can be called up and used at any moment that seems appropriate.

W: Would you view mental representation as a process rather than an image?

R: Mental representation is very active and dynamic. It is highly organized on the basis of interrelationships. George Miller pointed out clearly in his studies in the '60s and '70s that the human cognitive system always organizes knowledge in individual ways. Therefore, just to present disparate bits of knowledge and to keep them separate is not what the mind is going to do. If one does not give some sort of guidance on how they fit together, the mind will invent a framework because it is very hard to learn odd bits of knowledge that have no apparent connection. For that reason, teachers who know how the pieces fit together can help students to see how concepts and experiences fit together and how to take shortcuts.

W: Teachers who are not aware of the process portray language learning as an additive process . . .

R: . . . instead of realizing that elements of old information interact and form a systematic entity into which any new ones fit . . .

W: . . . and have an impact on the previous structure.

R: That is why we sometimes talk about spiraling, learning an elementary form of something and then learning a more complex form of it, and then relating this to the whole, so that eventually the student does not have three or four different levels of the same knowledge, but the whole thing becomes one interacting dynamic system in the brain.

W: The system can become overloaded. If teachers keep adding too many new elements, the learner is unable to retain them.

R: That is why there was all the criticism of the early audiolingual method and structuralism. Researchers were developing an intricate taxonomy consisting of a lot of separate items. They tried to identify all the English structures that students needed to learn. Thus, teachers would present hundreds of structures; as a result, learners became overloaded. If the items had been organized in some way, there might have been only fifteen structures with variations. It would be better to have the overview of an organizational system so that learners could see where the elements of a language relate to each other and how they fit in. Such an overview could depict the relationships between various tenses and aspects within a particular language. It would also show that these are different aspects of the same action; not just that there is this one and that one, but how they interrelate.

W: Do you think that learners need to be aware of the overview?

R: Yes, they should be aware. Note, however, that this does not mean that the presentation of the overview would have to be explicit and deductive. Students would become aware of it through their own inductive systems, through seeing the thing in action and observing it, and then saying, "Hey, this is what is really going on." At some stage they would become aware of how the elements all fit together. How that would be presented depends on the problems of specific languages; some problems can be quickly assimilated through using authentic language material and seeing how things work out. Some texts are too complicated and infrequently encountered for classroom use. Merrill Swain and Sharon Lapham's article in the

Modern Language Journal (1989) showed that after 8 years of taking immersion programs in Canada, Anglophones were still making the same mistakes in French that they typically make. The conclusion was that these particular problems were not encountered very frequently in the classroom; the teacher used a simplified form of language and a great deal of present tense. She rarely used the different past tenses or the conditional. Since the students did not have much opportunity to observe these in action, they did not absorb them and were not able to use them. Since they need to know how to use these tenses, the teacher might have to say, "Let's look at it now, this is the way it works, this is the part that is missing, now let's fit that into the whole."

W: It has to do with the distinction between habitual performance and skilled performance which you pointed out earlier.

R: I thought that was a very nice distinction, the fact that in habitual performance language becomes routinized and one cannot vary it, but in skilled performance, what is routinized can be consciously examined. Students can look at the elements of discourse and see whether it is appropriate. Then they are able to vary, even within the automatic structures. This was brought out by McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod in an article about controlled and automatic processes or routinized processes. A process which has become automatic can be brought to consciousness in the way of examining and refining it, and it still can be used in a fairly automatic way. In skillful performance students are aware of what they are doing and can examine and redirect, whereas in habitual performance, it is much harder. One just does it automatically, without necessarily knowing why.

W: Thus learners could reserve their energies for creative use of language. Would you like to comment on the relationship between the mental representation versus the monitor?

R: The mental representation is the arrangement of the knowledge of language within the brain so that one can see how the system of the language is organized; the monitor is the conscious observance of what one is doing. Obviously we cannot consciously observe what we are doing and adjust it unless the monitor is related to the mental representation. That is where I think we come back to the Anderson ACT * model which includes declarative and productive memory. The declarative memory is the mental representation of the form of the language, and productive memory is the learner's previous experience with the language. Productive memory draws on declarative memory so that one can produce performances through working memory. Then what students have learned from this new performance becomes encoded in the productive and declarative memory. The productive memory is the thinking process which draws on the declarative memory, so in a way the monitor would be more the productive memory drawing on the mental representation.

W: In your DLI lecture, you pointed out that the nodes of the brain are not language-specific.

R: The cognitive psychologists who have been working with artificial intelligence insist on that. They work on the assumption that these nodes are conceptual; if they were not, one would not have this continual relationship of concepts, and redundancies within concepts. Moreover, if the nodes were word-related, they would become more defined, whereas concepts are more elusive and elastic and words are more delimited and definitive. There is an uneasy fit between concepts and words so that concepts straddle several words and words straddle several concepts. They are not one-on-one.

W: Would you say that concepts are more oriented to content than to form?

R: They are semantic. When learners come into contact with a new language, they associate the words with concepts, not with other words of their own language. At first, they might associate foreign words with words of their native language in order to connect up with the networks. When they become fluent, however, they connect concepts with the words of the new language, which is the binding framework of Terrell (1986). Then as they find what concepts the new words straddle, they modify them.

W: Would you recommend that teachers use the left- and right-brain distinction?

R: I have avoided using this distinction, because the whole interconnection is complicated. Human use of various areas of the brain is the subject of intensive research. There are numerous simplistic assumptions about people being right-brained and left-brained. Bever's experiments, conducted years ago, showed that, although we often think of music as being associated with right brain, musicians, conductors, musicologists are processing with the left brain. Note that a person who listens to the undifferentiated sound and thinks that the orchestra is very uplifting, is really using the right brain, but the conductor and the performer are involved with the whole architecture of the piece, and that is a left brain function. There is a lot of research showing one cannot clearly distinguish just what is dealt with by the right and left brain, because of the continual connections between the two and their active nature.

W: Research shows that patients who have lost certain parts of the brain were still able to function.

R: When we had studies on learning by hypnotism, the idea was that we would be able to get learners to absorb the language as if it were not a left-brain but a right-brain activity and somehow they would be able to use it. Some of that is pseudoscientific in the sense that concepts are treated as black-and-white when they are really shading into each other.

W: Looking back, what were the points of your career that you feel strongly about?

R: That is a difficult question, because my career has been extremely varied, and has taken several different directions at various stages. I have enjoyed everything I have ever done. I have always enjoyed the jobs I have taken on and I've always learned through them.

W: What do you feel is your strongest contribution to the field?

R: I think one of my strongest contributions is the fact that I have taught at every level. I have taught men, women, boys and girls; from 5- or 6-year-olds to 80, in Sunday kindergarten, primary school, junior high and high school, at college and graduate levels, and in night courses. Whichever group I am speaking to, I have some feeling for the sort of background that they are in, the sort of situation in which they are teaching. Teachers seem to appreciate this. I think that is one of my strengths: the breadth of my experience and the fact that I have learned a language to a level of very acceptable control, which I can use fluently with all sorts of people; but I had to learn it the hard way. I had to work my way through it and find what were the problems of language learning. I think that is always a strength.

W: What are your plans for your future?

R: Oh, I am having a great time letting life evolve.

W: What are your current projects?

R: Now that I'm retired, I cannot decide that I want to become a college president or something, because no one is going to employ me, but I enjoy writing. I have always written; perhaps it may evolve into a broader form of writing. At the moment I am acting as associate editor for a journal for teachers of English in France which has articles on all sorts of aspects of life in Anglophone countries. I have written a little article on growing up in Australia which brings out the different seasons and some differences between the Southern and Northern hemispheres. I just let things evolve as they come up. People invite me, I accept or I do not, and I just see what will come. I am at that stage in my career when one does not have to decide what one's goals or plans are.

W: That is wonderful.

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Foreign Language versus Second Language

George Rubinstein
School of Russian 1

Practical application of research findings in applied linguistics is often hampered when investigators fail to specify the domain of applicability for their findings. The article points out contradictions and sources of confusion in the use of the terms foreign language (FL) and second language (L2) in the current literature, and argues for their strict distinction.

To show a distinction between FL and L2 learning, a number of related factors are described: goals, motivation, time, real language use, and output.

It is proposed that in cases where features common to both FL and L2 are meant (as opposed to L1), a third term such as non-native language (NNL) or target language (TL), be consistently employed.

Intensive research in the field of applied linguistics has resulted in findings of theoretical and practical importance for teaching/learning various languages. However, the practical application of particular findings is frequently hampered when investigators present findings without specifying the domain of their applicability. As a result, conclusions obtained in investigations of specific groups of learners under certain conditions of learning/acquisition are applied to other groups under different conditions. The conditions may, contrary to the researcher's intentions, appear unrelated to a particular group of learners.[1]

The inconsistent use of such basic terms as *foreign language* (FL) and *second language* (L2) seems to account to a great extent for this ambiguous situation.

Though learning non-native languages dates back thousands of years, language pedagogy[2] is a comparatively young field of endeavor. The development of corresponding terminology has been influenced by attendant sociolinguistic circumstances in various countries. In the United States, the tradition of studying classical languages (Greek and Latin) was strong. Thus, the term *modern language* appeared and was extensively used to mean FL.[3] The term *foreign language* was also used, though much less frequently. The word *foreign* often had a negative connotation and was avoided, probably because during the period from World War I to 1952 "the desire was to avoid all foreign contacts and involvements" (Chastain, 1971, p. 13). "The study of modern languages was affected . . . by distrust and dislike for all things foreign" (p. 14). In the initial pages of Kenneth Chastain's monograph *The Development of Modern Language Skills*, we find 69 occurrences of the term *modern language* and only 11 occurrences of the term *foreign language* (pp. 1-27).

The term *L2* was probably used at first as an opposite for L1,[4] functioning as a synonym for FL.[5] When after World War II a large wave of immigrants was granted asylum in the United States and there was an influx of foreign students into American colleges, teaching English to these categories of learners entered a new phase. The difference between teaching English as FL or as L2 gradually became evident and was expressed as "the new theories and practices in teaching English as a foreign or second language" (Allen, 1966, p. 2).[6] The term L2 thus began to be used to denote a new notion and became ambiguous. This ambiguity could not pass unnoticed. According to Robert Lado, the term *target language* "is sometimes preferable to *foreign language*, because the language being taught or learned may not be a foreign one. It is sometimes less ambiguous than *second language* because the target language may be the third or fourth language for a particular individual" (1964, p. 221).

There is no unanimity in understanding the basic notions of FL and L2. Sometimes they are defined on the basis of the language process involved. L2 is considered to be "a language which is acquired, as opposed to FL, which is learned (*DLI, 1984, p. 469)*. However, the difference between FL and L2 is not in the opposition of learning and acquisition, since acquisition can take place during learning in a formal setting (Ellis, 1989).[7] All English courses for immigrants in the US and England are courses in English as L2 (ESL) and not FL. It is the conditions under which the language process takes place rather than the process itself that makes the difference. As it was justly phrased, "L2 learning . . . takes place within the environment of the target language, while FL learning is essentially limited to a classroom within the L1 environment (VanPatten, Dvorak, & Lee, 1987, pp. 2-3).[8]

The misuse of these terms usually takes the following forms:

- Some authors fail to make a distinction between FL and L2. According to them, L2 is "a language learned after the basics of the first have been acquired. A second language may be a "foreign" or "host" language (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982, p. 280). They treat as L2 learners the categories of learners who are actually learners of FL: Japanese adults studying English

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in Japan, American graduate students studying French, American university students learning Spanish (Gardner, 1991); American students of Spanish, Russian, German, Chinese (Omaggio, 1986); German high school students learning English (Felix, 1981); secondary school students in Scotland learning German (Weinert, 1987); American learners of Russian (Cole, 1990).

- Other authors make the distinction but do not consider it to be important; they use one term, L2 (never FL!), to mean both. Thus, Leo van Lier notes that "the term *L2 learning* will subsume, for the sake of convenience, other commonly used terms, such as SLA (second language acquisition), FLL (foreign language learning), SLL (second language learning), and so on (1991, p. 62). Some applied linguists speak of an aggregate *second/foreign language learning field* (Clark & O'Mara, 1991, p. 71). Rod Ellis, reporting a study of classroom language acquisition "by learners of L2 German" admits that "they were foreign rather than second, L2 learners" (1986, p. 307). However, the author continues to treat them as L2 learners (see pp. 309, 311, 314ff). He uses *L2* in contexts of *FL*, speaking of "one L2," "two L2s," "three L2s," and "one of their L2s" (p. 312).

The difference between FL and L2, however, has not escaped the attention of researchers. It was stressed that "the importance of the differences between the contexts of FL and L2 learning should not be underestimated," and that "FL learners as a group are qualitatively different from L2 learners" (VanPatten, Dvorak, & Lee, 1987, p. 2), that "there are both quantitative and qualitative differences in the two language learning situations" (Gass, 1990, p. 43).

The distinction between FL and L2 learning requires a strict definition of the terms as well as the domain for methodological recommendations. It does not appear reasonable to speak of L2 learning meaning both L2 learning proper and FL learning. Research has not found final answers to the many questions arising from this distinction.

Here are some of the questions posed by VanPatten, Dvorak, and Lee:

- Do the contextual differences between FL learning and L2 learning somehow result in changes in the learning process itself or merely in changes in the product?
- What would a comparison of the FL and L2 learning processes reveal?
- How restrictive is the formal environment in terms of providing input for acquisition?

- What is the impact of the academic setting on learning?
- To what extent can acquisition take place within a strictly formal environment?

A number of theoretical and practical factors contribute to the distinction between FL and L2 learning. Briefly described below are such factors as goals, motivation, time, and real language use. All these factors have a direct bearing on the teaching/learning process and on the activities involved. And it is only natural that the speaker's output, too, reveals differences between FL and L2 learners.

Goals

It is widely accepted that the general goal of both FL and L2 instruction/learning is communicative ability (Littlewood, 1982, p. viii). But if the components of communicative ability (grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic, see Canale, 1983) are viewed in the context of introducing learners to a particular sphere of natural communication in the target language, it will become evident that specific communicative goals of FL and L2 learners may vary. No matter how different the objectives of L2 learners, they must have at least one common goal: to survive and function in the L1 environment. Therefore, the ability to communicate orally is of paramount importance for these learners.

FL learners, on the other hand, may have more specific goals: "A *foreign language* does not have immediate social and communicative functions within the community where it is learned" (Oxford, 1990, p. 6). Oral communication may not be the crucial skill needed by some FL learners. Some of them, such as scholars or technical experts, may need good skills for reading special literature in the target language and may be content with a "tourist" level of oral skills. Joyce Neu reports goal differences among various FL students. Some of them were using Polish to satisfy a language requirement for a Ph.D. or as a necessary tool for Ph.D. level research. They "expressed satisfaction with the grammar focus of the course and explained that they had little interest in learning to speak Polish. None of these students had plans to use Polish as a means of communication." The goal of the other group of students was "to use the language for communication, not as a tool for research or as a means to satisfy an academic requirement" (Neu, 1991, p. 432).

Other learners may have a priority need for listening skills (Woytak, 1987, p. 41) or for both of the receptive skills, listening and reading. Experience has shown that the best results in receptive skills are achieved when students are exposed to extensive listening or reading input made comprehensible by special activities. The successful performance results of many Russian learners at DLI make it clear that the achievement of such uneven language skill development, where receptive skills are given priority, requires modifications in the generally recommended communicative approach. The typical communicative emphasis on speaking first is modified by placing greater emphasis on listening and reading activities.[9]

Thus, we see that FL learning may have a variety of goals which do not always coincide with the goals of L2 learning. Therefore, the recommendations of the L2 learning approaches cannot be applied blindly to FL learning with specific goals.

Motivation

FL and L2 learners are not usually equally motivated to learn the target language. It was observed that many FL learners "do not consider language learning a particularly valuable or enjoyable experience and are often resentful of the time and energy demanded to master a skill they do not want and never intend to use" (VanPatten, Dvorak, & Lee, 1987, p. 2).

L2 learners, on the other hand, have to use the target language in everyday situations, which cannot help adding to their motivation.

Though some FL learners may be internally motivated by their desire and/or need to use the language in the target language environment, for most, including high school and college students, the motivation is largely external. They are motivated by the desire for better grades, work opportunities, financial considerations, the respect of others, and so on. On the contrary, although some L2 learners may be motivated externally, motivation comes for most from an urgent need to use the language in everyday life, to survive in the country, to get a better job, to be accepted socially.

Input

The role of input in language learning cannot be overestimated (cf. Krashen 1982; Gass, & Madden, 1985). No acquisition or learning can take place without some kind of input.[10]

Since exposure to L2 can never be restricted to either teacher talk in a classroom or to target language materials, which are typical conditions of FL exposure, teaching/learning FL becomes drastically different from teaching/learning L2. Input available to the L2 learner is much richer in quality and amount than that available to the FL learner. "For the same reason, the kind and quality of opportunities for real language use are considerably greater for the L2 learner" (VanPatten, Dvorak, & Lee, 1987, p. 2).

Another consideration related to the input factor is that most L2 teachers are native speakers or bilinguals, while many FL teachers are non-native speakers of the target language (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988).[11] All other factors being equal, the quality of input in the latter case is much lower (Hiple & Manley, 1987).

Time

All language courses have certain time frames; they cannot last indefinitely. This is true for both FL and L2 courses. But the time spent learning a FL is much more precious than the time allowed for an L2 course since exposure to language while learning within the L2 environment makes up for any shortage in the course time. According to Higgs, "the exposure time available to an adult foreign language learner taking a full college level foreign language program . . . is very nearly equal to the minimum time associated with the "silent period" in the literature of child L2 acquisition (1985, p. 201).

The time factor affects the kinds of activities practiced in FL and L2 classrooms. Many of the activities suitable for L2 classes, including time-consuming games for fun and relaxation, would be inappropriate for a FL class with its rigid time limits. They simply cannot be afforded because of the time involved in performing them.

Real Language Use

It has been noted in the literature that "the kind and quantity of opportunities for real language are considerably greater for the L2 learner" (VanPatten, Dvorak, & Lee, 1987, p. 3).

The problem of real language use is especially related to task-based learning. According to one of the creators of this approach, "the defining characteristic of task-based content is that it uses activities that the learners have to do for non-instructional purposes outside of the classroom as opportunities for language learning" (Krahnke, 1987, p. 57). "The intent of task-based learning is to use learners' real-life needs and activities as learning experiences, providing motivation through immediacy and relevancy" (p. 58). Therefore, "when the language is being taught outside the culture where it is used, task-based instruction can be difficult to implement" (p. 62).

Task-based instruction defined in this way is very efficient for L2 learners. Real-life tasks in communicating with native speakers in the target language environment provide a lot of real-life language practice. Similar tasks are sometimes given to FL students. Some instructors, for example, used to take DLI Russian students to supermarkets, post offices, etc., to conduct classes in conversation there. It is evident that such trips in the L1 environment may have doubtful instructional value. Indeed, in the L1 environment, the FL learners will not encounter any new speakers of the target language during those trips, and the conversations in the target language with each other and with their instructor might just as well take place in class.

Some advocate the creation of "real-life situations in class" (Koppany, 1987, p. 71). Real "real-life situations" can certainly arise or be created in class.[12] They are usually related to the process of instruction (for instance, changes in the schedule or shortages of certain materials or other resources); human relations between students and instructor or among the students themselves; or events affecting the students, their instructor, and their friends and families. But "real-life situations" cannot be imagined. The moment the situation becomes imagined or "thought-of," it loses its real-life character and becomes purely instructional. No matter how much "real-life-like" a situation is, it crucially differs from an authentic real-life situation because the speech stimulus, due to its capacity to evoke speech, an important component of the situation, cannot become real.[13] No props, no realia such as labels from bottles, candy wrappers and the like, can recreate a real Moscow restaurant in Washington, D.C., and change a role-play into a real-life situation with its rich speech stimulus (for a different view, see Leaver, 1989).

Proficiency Results

The different learning environments of FL and L2 learners will naturally affect the outcome of learning. L2 learning usually results in higher levels of proficiency than does FL learning (VanPatten, Dvorak, & Lee, 1987, p. 3). Most FL learners, even in the best US language schools, such as the Foreign Service Institute or DLI, do not achieve proficiency levels higher than Level 3 (Omaggio, 1986, pp. 19-21).

It is possible, under specific circumstances, to temporarily transform FL learners into L2 learners. This is, as one might expect, accompanied by increased proficiency results. Examples of such a transformation can be found in Leaver (1989). The author describes "dismantling classroom walls" at the Foreign Service Institute with a number of programs designed to increase student contact with native speakers of Russian and with Russian culture. No wonder that as a result of increased contacts between students and emigrants, which frequently exceeded six hours a day and included spending weekends with members of the Russian community, their "language capabilities improved rapidly—from Level 2+ to Level 4 in three months" (pp. 69-70). This kind of improvement is not the result of easily initiated FL activities which can be recommended for universal use in ordinary schools and colleges. It is the result of a temporary transformation of FL learners into L2 non-class learners in a specific situation, distinguished by the availability of large Russian enclaves and newly arrived unemployed adult immigrants with little or no knowledge of English who, although not professional teachers, are ready to work more than six hours a day and weekends as volunteers or to receive "only a small honorarium" (p. 73).[14]

Another example is even more self-evident. Leaver points out "the rapidity with which students of Russian attain higher competency and performance levels while studying at Moscow or Leningrad Universities or the Pushkin Institute, compared with the same number of months in an intensive program in the United States, or in the reverse situation, the amount of rapid progress that is made by speakers of English as a second language, once they enroll in American universities" (p. 73). The only thing left unnoticed by the author is that both the American students and the speakers of English as a FL (not an L2, as it is called in the article cited) began to show rapid progress when they ceased to be FL learners and were transformed into L2 learners.

Summary

All these considerations suggest the following conclusions:

1. FL and L2 should not be mixed. They are different. As Rebecca Oxford (1990, p. 6) correctly notes, "This 'second vs. foreign' distinction is often baffling to teachers, students, parents, and the general public. Nevertheless, it is important to understand the difference. . . . The differences between second language contexts and foreign language contexts are real." These differences-manifest themselves, as shown above, in learners' goals and motivation, in the kind of input, the importance of the time factor, the opportunity for real language use, the proficiency results, and in language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 6). FL learning has specific problems which make it in large measure different from L2 learning. Therefore, the findings in L2 research should be applied with great care to FL practice.

2. The term *L2* should not be used to mean *FL*.

3. The differences between FL and L2 learning and the problems mentioned above make it imperative, in any analysis related to both FL and L2, to use a term applicable for both of them. It cannot be *language learning* (Newmark, 1966) since this term also covers L1 learning (acquisition of the native language by the children subconsciously or learning it from parents or peers, or in school). Such a term can be either *non-native language* (NNL) or *target language* (*TL*). Although these terms are used by some authors (Lado, 1964; Newmark, 1966; Dulay & Burt, 1974; Oxford, 1990), they should be used more consistently.

Notes

1. It is unclear, for example, whether Rebecca Oxford's taxonomy of second language learning strategies (Oxford, 1989) can be applied to learning a foreign language, for the term *foreign language* cannot be found either in the text of her article or in its references. However, the distinction between L2 and FL is made in her book, where she acknowledges that "some learning strategies might be easier to use in second language contexts than in foreign language settings, or vice versa" (Oxford, 1990, p. 6).

2. The term *pedagogy* is used here to mean both pedagogy proper (the art of educating a child) and androgogy (the art of educating an adult). The latter term is used less frequently and is never understood to mean educating a child.

3. Compare the name of the professional organization Modern Language Association of America (MLA), created in 1883. Compare also titles of literature that relates to the field:

> Bahlsen (1905), *The Teaching of Modern Languages* (Boston: Ginn); Hagboldt (1925), *How to Study Modern Languages in High School*; Buchanan and MacPhee (1928), *An Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology* (University of Toronto Press); Coleman (1929), *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States* (New York: Macmillan).

The term FL probably came to be more frequently used in the 1950s when during the rapid growth of US student enrollments, the FL section of the MLA was organized (1952) and the influential William Parker book *The National Interest and the Foreign Languages* (1954) was published. Interestingly, the second edition of Chastain (1971) was published in 1976 with a changed title: *Developing Second-Language Skills. It includes the following explanation:* "The title of the second edition has been changed . . . because the term *second language* is broader than *modern language* and creates a more positive image than *foreign language" (p. vii).*

4. Compare: "the notion of first-language interference with second-language learning" (Newmark, 1966, p. 77); "Application of new theories of first-language learning to second-language learning and teaching . . . " (Chastain, 1971, p. 143) "teaches oral skills directly in the second language without reference to the mother tongue" (p. 13).

5. Leonard Newmark uses the terms *L2*, *new language*, *target language*, and *FL* with the same meaning, all of these in contrast to L1. (1966).

6. The situation was quite different in the former Soviet Union. There were practically no immigrants in the country. In the national republics of the USSR, Russian was taught as a "second native language," officially called *Russian in the National School*. "Teaching Russian in the National School" is a special branch of methodology, and a journal of the same title is published. The appearance of foreign students (from the Eastern bloc European countries and from the countries of the Third World) after the World War II gave rise to a new branch of Soviet language methodology, "Teaching Russian as a FL." (The word *foreign* has a positive connotation for many Russians.)

7. According to a different point of view, "as long as language is taught out of cultural context, language use and the approach to language study will be those of learning and not of acquisition" (Leaver, 1989, p. 67).

8. The meaning of "classroom" environment should probably be extended to learning a FL on one's own, without a teacher, with the help of specially prepared materials (printed, audio, video, or computerized).

9. For example, the School of Russian Language 1, coping with the goals of non-uniform development of basic skills, succeeded in increasing the percentage of learners who reached a Level 2 or higher in listening comprehension (from 29 percent in 1987 to 90 percent in 1991). 94 percent of these learners reached a Level 2 or higher in reading comprehension. Because of the dramatic improvement of results in listening and reading, it then became possible to concentrate on speaking skills, in which by 1991 70 percent of the learners were performing at Level 2 or higher.

10. According to van Lier (1991), input is "language that is received through the senses and made available for mental processing" (p. 33).

11. The predominance of L1 teachers of FLs at DLI is exceptional and does not represent the general situation across the country.

12. Presumably the authors do not mean real-life situations per se, but real-life *speech* situations. In everyday life, we are confronted with a multitude of pragmatic situations in which human actions are not accompanied by any communicative discourse. The following is an example of such a non-speech situation: *You look around, and you see that your room is a mess. You straighten up your room.* Of course, for the person involved in this sort of situation, the appropriate actions are

accompanied by thinking and planning and, therefore—maybe—by some kind of unexpressed discourse. But the nature of this kind of discourse would probably be of little interest to applied linguistics.

13. We consider the instructional speech situation as consisting of: (1) the conditions of the situation and (2) the learners' speech reaction (output). The conditions of the situation include the following components: (a) a description of the situation (information about the setting and the participants in the discourse); (b) a speech stimulus; and (c) the learner's task (Skalkin & Rubinštein, 1991, pp.154-161).

14. The history of FL learning in Russia has shown that no scientific language methodology is needed in order to produce, in the L1 setting, target language speakers with near-native proficiency in specific conditions. Such conditions were created in the 18th and 19th centuries by Russian nobility whose children were looked after by native French tutors and governesses, and achieved, without applied linguistics or the communicative approach, the ability to communicate in French with the highest levels of proficiency (cf., for example, Leo Tolstoy's *War and Peace*, which quite accurately reflected the ability of Russian nobles to communicate freely in French).

In certain communities of immigrants in the US (Hispanic, Chinese, Armenian, Russian, and so on), many children first acquire the language of their parents and only then do they also acquire English as L2 and become bilinguals.

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Author

GEORGE RUBINSTEIN, Supervisory Training Specialist, School of Russian 1, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: linguistics (Russian, English), applied linguistics, curriculum development.

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Task-Based Instruction: From the Teacher's Perspective

Eugene Maly
School of Central European Languages

The purpose of this paper is to describe task-based instruction as a teaching approach, to share the techniques used in teaching the first 24 weeks of a basic 47-week course in the Czech language, and to present suggestions and ideas for implementing task-based instruction in an intensive basic language course.

After having taught Czech at the Defense Language Institute for 13 years by various methods or approaches without embracing any wholeheartedly, I jumped at the chance of teaching the March 1990 class via task-based instruction, which eventually evolved into content-based instruction.

Initial Challenges

The decision to teach the new class via task-based instruction (TBI) came 8 days prior to their arrival, which left little time for preparation and realia/textbook procurement. Neither of the teachers involved in the program had any practical experience and only fundamental theoretical knowledge of this particular approach. We soon realized that we would have to supply all the materials and learn about the approach as we progressed.

Syllabus Design

TBI is defined as instruction that focuses on thematic sequencing of language material consistent with the principles of Bloom's *Cognitive Domain of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. The underlying theory of this approach, according to Bloom (1965), is that the student acquires structure/function by performing tasks in the higher levels of the taxonomy table which require application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. In more traditional linguistic exercises students operate only on the level of knowledge (rote memorization) and understanding.

The Czech syllabus dealt mostly with thematic content rather than grammar, although satisfactory performance in a particular theme required that manipulation of several structures/functions had to be mastered by the student. Initially, the syllabus was student-oriented: A new theme was not to be introduced until the group performed relatively well on the current theme. From about the 12th week of instruction, the syllabus became more student-generated; students selected the themes, thus stimulating intrinsic motivation (see Appendix B).

Student Involvement in Instruction

In the 4th week of instruction the students chose an academic representative from among their peers to serve as a liaison between the students and the teaching team coordinator; the representative would be responsible for discussing academic matters with the coordinator and/or students. In addition, every 8 weeks the students provided teachers with feedback in the form of an opinion questionnaire about the success of the course. Questionnaire results were later discussed with students and, at times, generated ideas that were incorporated into the program (see Appendix B). These practices follow the principles of andragogy; andragogy assumes, according to Knowles (1976), that every individual tends to feel more committed to a decision or activity in which he/she has participated.

The General Program of Instruction

At each step, a meaningful (real-life/communicative) theme was selected and the grammar functions in the theme identified. Creation of meaningful tasks, hopefully engaging all four skills and using authentic materials, was essential, as was checking on progress. Keeping in mind Krashen's formula $i+1$ (Krashen, 1981), which calls for exposure of students to a little more than their ability, the students were always exposed to authentic materials, many of which were beyond their full comprehension—something more akin to i + 10. The tasks they were asked to perform, however, were only a little beyond their ability. As the students progressed, we expanded the theme, including the grammatical functions, as well as the tasks. There were no explicit grammar explanations in English; the use of English by the instructor was precluded. By using no English in the classroom, the teacher created a need for the students to communicate with the instructor in Czech; in order to ease the possible lack of confidence in the initial stages, students were allowed to ask questions in English, but the instructor answered in Czech. Small group activities, in which two to four students worked together, were frequently utilized in order to enhance the transfer of language learning strategies from one student to another. The small groups also helped to lower the affective filter.

Each lesson included: (a) a pre-reading exercise; (b) a listening comprehension exercise (often introduced via four-handed instruction, where two teachers in the same classroom have a non-rehearsed, spontaneous verbal exchange on a predetermined topic to serve as a pre-listening exercise or model); (c) a manipulative exercise focused on the input from the text which the student analyzed, synthesized, etc.; and (d) a comprehension/performance check and feedback session (see Appendix B).

Development of a Specific Lesson Plan

"Personal Introductions and Biographical Information" was chosen as a logical theme for the first day of class. To function in this theme in Czech one needs: (a) forms of greetings; (b) first and second person of the verb *být* (*to be*) and the reflexive verb *jmenovat se* (*to be named*); (c) the preposition *z* (*from*) and genitive case endings; and (d) other lexical items pertaining to employment. Profiles about real people were adapted to these grammatical structures. When we were confident that the students had mastered the first theme by having them do similar profiles on each other, we moved on to another theme and further expansion of functions, e. g., "Visiting Czechoslovakia," along with the necessary grammatical points. The "Getting a Visa" theme (certainly a meaningful task, if one is to visit the country) was also introduced on the first day of class; it required the addition of (a) several verbs: *narodit se, bydlet, pracovat* (*to work, to be born, to live*); (b) some verbs of motion, e.g., *jet, letět* (*to go, to fly*); and (c) the prepositions *do* (*into*) with more genitive endings, and *v* (*in*) with some locative case endings. In this theme the first contrast surfaced between verbs of motion with their required prepositions and other verbs with locative prepositions. This contrast was slight and was not confusing because it was introduced in a variety of meaningful tasks in all four skills.

Student progress was checked by a matching exercise and further reinforced by a new theme of expanded personal information, where there were no new functions—just expansion of students' lexicon. The next theme was "Travel" where familiar structures were reviewed in a new environment. They included the preposition *na* (*onto, to*), which provided students with a contrast of the locative and accusative cases, using the same preposition, as well as the future tense of the previously acquired verbs of motion. The last theme in this group was "Map Orientation" where students gave and received directions. The new grammar included the prepositions *od* (*from, outside of*) plus genitive case, ***k*** (*to, up to*) and dative case with the necessary case inflections, new verbs of motion *odbočit* (*to turn*), *dojet* (*to arrive*), *dostat* (*to get to*), and the imperative forms of these and previously acquired verbs of motion (see Appendix B).

Testing

Students' performance was checked often throughout a theme by means of various tasks. In order to lower the affective filter, correction was usually carried out as a group activity, with help from the instructor only when necessary. Testing for grades was conducted every 2 weeks and consisted of one and a half- to two-hour pro-chievement tests; the students themselves usually selected the themes for testing; however the scripts were chosen by the instructor. (A pro-chievement test is defined here as a test where a student has to perform a task on a familiar theme but not necessarily with a familiar script.) Feedback was provided after every test by having the students correct the tests on their own (if successful, they could raise their grade by 10 points), and then with the teacher's assistance. This technique ensured that students learned from their mistakes—the primary reason for conducting tests. In addition, the students were tested for proficiency in speaking, listening, and reading at 8-week intervals and received grades based on their proficiency (see Appendix D).

Positive and Negative Aspects of Task-Based Instruction

TBI was generally received favorably by the students. The first obstacle was that most of the students were used to more traditional ways of teaching and expected testing of knowledge and comprehension in an achievement format; somehow, they did not feel they were learning *unless it hurt*. In other words, they were *expecting* rote memorization, daily quizzes, grammar explanations, and extrinsic motivation. The strategy for overcoming this problem was to have the students list what they had *learned* (rather than what had been taught). This strategy increased their intrinsic motivation.

With no authentic listening comprehension materials for everyday situations, we relied on four-handed teaching. It was received favorably by the students: they could tape the conversations and while listening again at home could still visualize the instructors. The students were given a task prior to the conversation, e. g., to listen to the arguments and on the merits of the arguments to decide who was more persuasive, or to notice the similarities or dissimilarities of ordering food in the CSFR and the US.

In our opinion, four-handed teaching is one of the best techniques for developing listening comprehension skills for understanding a foreign language. The students can listen to and view an unrehearsed interaction between two native instructors, and although at times they may not understand it entirely, they can infer much from gestures, tone, etc. The interaction can also be recorded, and the students can listen to it at home. The drawback to four-handed teaching was the difficulty of finding other instructors for these skits; many instructors felt uncomfortable in a role play.

The negative aspect of teaching strictly by TBI, as we had done, is that it is labor intensive. If taught only by themes, it is difficult to estimate how much time a theme would require to complete and what the natural direction of the following themes might be. TBI requires much coordination between instructors (not an easy task), so that the thread of learning is not lost. Maintaining a predetermined schedule in an intensive program proved to be nearly impossible. Principally for this reason, at the 24th week we decided to switch to content-based instruction; the transition from task-based to content-based instruction was an easy one.

Conclusion

After teaching a task-based curriculum we have observed the following: When a student is involved in a meaningful activity and is tasked to higher levels of mental activity beyond memory and understanding, he or she processes and stores information in the cognitive domain and actually learns how to learn. The lexicon and grammar associated with the original themes were reinforced by expanding on themes and functions, providing for natural error correction, which these students found preferable to having the instructor correct errors. TBI creates a non-competitive low affective filter atmosphere, where students take risks and make errors but also are given a chance to detect them through models or other students. Furthermore, a new theme is not introduced until the previous one has been acquired by the students; since the syllabus is theme-based, the teacher can continue on variations of the theme until the students acquire it, without being repetitive. Lastly, the themes can be student-generated rather than teacher-generated, allowing the students to be responsible for their own learning and allowing the teacher to become the "manager of student learning."

TBI served as an excellent precursor to content-based instruction used from the 24th week of the course; tasks were also part of content-based instruction. The end result was that 100 percent of the students reached graduation requirements of 2/2/2 in speaking, listening, and reading and 80 percent of the students achieved at least 2/2+/2+ on the proficiency test at the end of the 47-week course (see Appendix D).

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Author

EUGENE MALY, Program Coordinator, Czech Department, School of Central European Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: second language acquisition, psycholinguistics, content-based instruction.

Appendix A
Excerpts from Student Opinion Questionnaires (given at monthly intervals)

1. *What do you like most about the course so far?*

   It provides a challenge in that I am learning slowly but surely ... The instructors, the different teaching methods, the audio-visual techniques, such as slides, films . . . I like the use of magazines and getting ideas across by figuring things out for ourselves. I like the fact that our teachers don't speak English with us and when we don't understand they simplify or compare to things we do understand. I like the encouragement. . . . I think it is much more interesting to hear a typical Czech conversation on tape or in person. I especially like little skits on the phone. The immersion is just right. We're given enough information on a daily basis to allow for continuous growth. . . . The support given by the instructors is a big plus; quick to praise for right answers and quick to point out but not scold for errors . . . maintains a positive atmosphere and what's making us offensive rather than defensive learners . . . Being placed in situations where the only outlet is through oral communication one begins to listen for words and look for gestures and facial expressions which is merely the rehearsal for the real-life drama. . . . The interaction of the class is the most effective facet of learning here. . . . I feel I would not be as far as I am now if taught in a more stringent manner as in some other schools. I like learning with all my senses because I retain the information more rapidly and effectively. If I see, hear, speak and write I learn better. The relaxed atmosphere created an environment I like more; I feel I will not burn out . . . if you're not comfortable how can you expect to learn the language?

2. *What do you like least?*

   Sometimes when questions are asked, they are not understood and not answered directly. Sometimes when we speak in Czech or have a conversation I feel as if we're not being corrected enough and we may be saying words or their endings the wrong way.

3. *Any other additional comments/suggestions?*

   I would like to have practice exercises on grammar. I think we should learn the words before being given newspapers, etc.

   We need to overcome the tension between the students and be a little more creative in our learning process and assessment of it.

Appendix B
Sample Lesson—Weather Theme

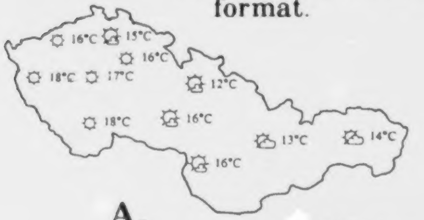
A. Brainstorming exercise:

Students brainstorm concepts, lexical items and phrases already acquired and write them on the board.

B. Pre-reading exercise:

Tasks: 1) Match weather charts with written passages.

2) Compare American and Czech weather newspaper format.



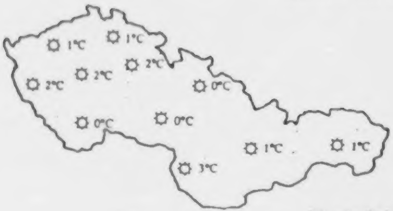
A.

V ČR bude v sobotu jasno až polojasno, na severozápadě přechodně oblačno. V neděli oblačno až zataženo, místy se slabým sněžením. Po oba dva dny ráno místy mlhy a nízká oblačnost, která se ojediněle udrží celý den, v neděli hlavně na Moravě. Noční teploty v sobotu —7 až —11 st. C, v neděli —4 až —8 st. C. Denní teploty v sobotu kolem nuly, v neděli —1 až 3 st. C, v místech s celodenní nízkou oblačností —8 až —4 st. C.

V sobotu a v neděli bude v SR převážně jasno a chladno. Ráno a dopoledne v údolích místy mlha. V průběhu neděle od západu velká oblačnost až zataženo a místy slabé sněžení. Noční teploty —7 až —11 st. C, v horských dolinách kolem —13 st. C, denní —1 až 3 st. C.

Počasí včera ve vybraných městech. (V závorce je uveden místní čas.)

Oslo (13 h) zataženo, —10 st., **Stockholm** (13 h) skoro jasno, —2 st., **Moskva** (15 h) zataženo, sněžení, —1 st., **Londýn** (12 h) zataženo, déšť, 8 st., **Paříž** (13 h) polojasno, 7 st., **Berlín** (13 h) jasno, 2 st., **Praha** (13 h) jasno, —1 st., **Varšava** (13 h) zataženo, sněžení, —6 st., **Madrid** (13 h) zataženo, 5 st., **Řím** (13 h) zataženo, 5 st., **Los Angeles** (4 h) jasno, 12 st., **Tokio** (21 h) skoro jasno, 7 st., **Peking** (20 h) jasno, —4 st.



B.

V pátek bude v ČR převážně polojasno, na Moravě ojediněle přeháňky. V sobotu polojasno až oblačno, na Moravě místy, jinde jen ojediněle přeháňky. Noční teploty 6 až 2 st.C, odpolední 14 až 18 st.C.

V pátek a v sobotu bude v SR jasno až polojasno, odpoledne postupně zvětšená oblačnost a v horských oblastech ojediněle přeháňky. Noční teploty 4 až 0 st.C, na severním Slovensku kolem 13 st.C.

Počasí včera ve vybraných městech (v závorce je uveden místní čas)
Oslo (13 h) zataženo, déšť, 5 st., **Stockholm** (13 h) oblačno, 13 st., **Moskva** (15 h) oblačno, 16 st., **Londýn** (12 h) skoro zataženo, 18 st., **Paříž** (13 h) skoro jasno, 18 st., **Berlín** (13 h) skoro jasno, 14 st., **Varšava** (13 h) skoro zataženo, 8 st., **Madrid** (13 h) skoro jasno, 20 st., **Řím** (13 h) jasno, 18 st., **Atény** (14 h) skoro zataženo, 18 st., **Washington** (7 h) zataženo, 18 st., **New York** (7 h) skoro zataženo, sněhová přeháňka, 0 st., **Los Angeles** (4 h) jasno, 18 st., **Montreal** (7 h) zataženo, 3 st., **Tokio** (21 h) skoro zataženo, 17 st., **Peking** (20 h) zataženo, 12 st.

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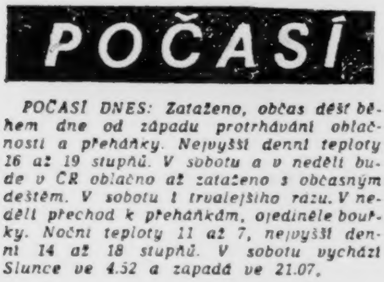
C. Reading exercise and discussion (new materials):

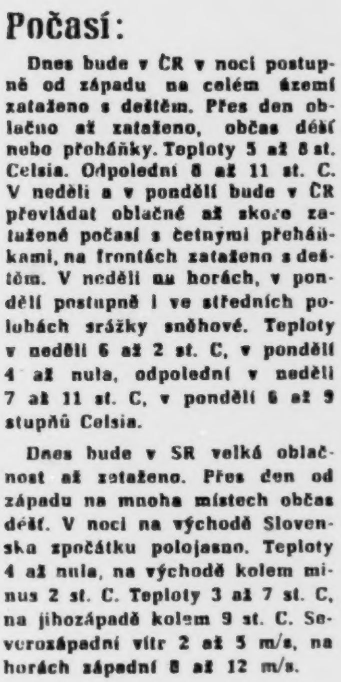
Tasks:

1) Separate into small groups. Read and discuss the forecasts (each group has a different forecast). Which seasons are the forecasts for? Substantiate your answers.
2) Find out by discussion which group has the best forecast.



POČASÍ

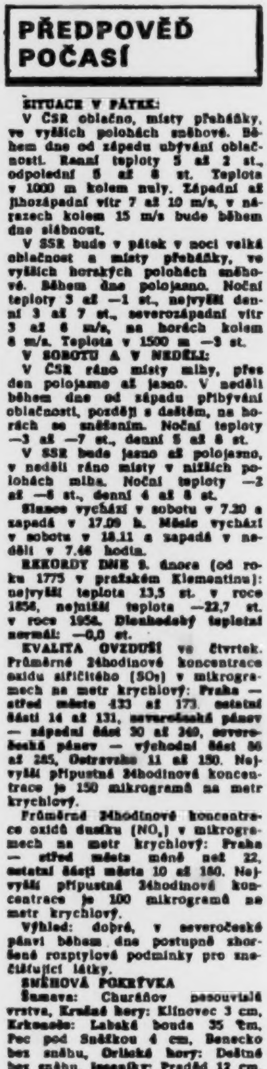
POČASÍ DNES: Zataženo, občas déšť během dne od západu protrhávání oblačnosti a přeháňky. Nejvyšší denní teploty 16 až 19 stupňů. V sobotu a v neděli bude v ČR oblačno až zataženo s občasným deštěm. V sobotu i trvalejšího rázu. V neděli přechod k přeháňkám, ojediněle bouřky. Noční teploty 11 až 7, nejvyšší denní 14 až 18 stupňů. V sobotu vychází Slunce ve 4.52 a zapadá ve 21.07.



Počasí:

Dnes bude v ČR v noci postupně od západu na celém území zataženo s deštěm. Přes den oblačno až zataženo, občas déšť nebo přeháňky. Teploty 5 až 8 st. Celsia. Odpolední 8 až 11 st. C. V neděli a v pondělí bude v ČR převládat oblačné až skoro zatažené počasí s četnými přeháňkami, na frontách zataženo s deštěm. V neděli na horách, v pondělí postupně i ve středních polohách srážky sněhové. Teploty v neděli 6 až 2 st. C, v pondělí 4 až nula, odpolední v neděli 7 až 11 st. C, v pondělí 6 až 9 stupňů Celsia.

Dnes bude v SR velká oblačnost až zataženo. Přes den od západu na mnoha místech občas déšť. V noci na východě Slovenska zpočátku polojasno. Teploty 4 až nula, na východě kolem minus 2 st. C. Teploty 3 až 7 st. C, na jihozápadě kolem 9 st. C. Severozápadní vítr 2 až 5 m/s, na horách západní 8 až 12 m/s.



PŘEDPOVĚĎ POČASÍ

SITUACE V PÁTEK:

V ČSR oblačno, místy přeháňky, ve vyšších polohách sněhové. Během dne od západu ubývání oblačnosti. Ranní teploty 5 až 2 st., odpolední 5 až 8 st. Teplota v 1000 m kolem nuly. Západní až jihozápadní vítr 7 až 10 m/s, v nárazech kolem 15 m/s bude během dne slábnout.

V SSR bude v pátek v noci velká oblačnost a místy přeháňky, ve vyšších horských polohách sněhové. Během dne polojasno. Noční teploty 3 až —1 st., nejvyšší denní 3 až 7 st., severozápadní vítr 3 až 6 m/s, na horách kolem 8 m/s. Teplota v 1500 m —3 st.

V SOBOTU A V NEDĚLI:

V ČSR ráno místy mlhy, přes den polojasno až jasno. V neděli během dne od západu přibývání oblačnosti, později s deštěm, na horách se sněžením. Noční teploty —3 až —7 st., denní 5 až 8 st.

V SSR bude jasno až polojasno, v neděli ráno místy v nižších polohách mlhy. Noční teploty —2 až —6 st., denní 4 až 8 st.

Slunce vychází v sobotu v 7.20 a zapadá v 17.09 h. Měsíc vychází v sobotu v 18.11 a zapadá v neděli v 7.46 hodin.

REKORDY DNE 9. února (od roku 1775 v pražském Klementinu): nejvyšší teplota 13,5 st. v roce 1856, nejnižší teplota —22,7 st. v roce 1956. Dlouhodobý teplotní normál: —0,0 st.

KVALITA OVZDUŠÍ ve čtvrtek. Průměrné 24hodinové koncentrace oxidu siřičitého (SO_2) v mikrogramech na metr krychlový: Praha — střed města 133 až 173, ostatní části 14 až 131, severočeská pánev — západní část 30 až 240, severočeská pánev — východní část 86 až 285, Ostravsko 11 až 150. Nejvyšší přípustná 24hodinová koncentrace je 150 mikrogramů na metr krychlový.

Průměrné 24hodinové koncentrace oxidů dusíku (NO_x) v mikrogramech na metr krychlový: Praha — střed města méně než 22, ostatní části města 10 až 180. Nejvyšší přípustná 24hodinová koncentrace je 100 mikrogramů na metr krychlový.

Výhled: dobrá, v severočeské pánvi během dne postupně zhoršené rozptylové podmínky pro znečišťující látky.

SNĚHOVÁ POKRÝVKA

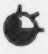
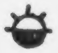
Šumava: Churáňov nesouvislá vrstva, Krušné hory: Klínovec 3 cm, Krkonoše: Labská bouda 35 cm, Pec pod Sněžkou 4 cm, Benecko bez sněhu, Orlické hory: Deštné bez sněhu, Jeseníky: Praděd 12 cm, Beskydy: Lysá hora bez sněhu.

3) Listening exercise: Fill in a chart — European Weather Report.

město	*teplota*	*počasí*
Londýn		
	18°C	
		zataženo

4) Task: Create a weather map using the information in your chart.

D. Comprehension check: Match weather symbols and corresponding lexical items by placing the number of the symbol next to the correct lexical item.

1. N
2. ☼
3. ✱
4. V
5. 
6. 
7. ▲●▲
8. ≡
9. ▲
10. ●
11. ▲▲▲
12. ϟ
13. ////
14. ●●●

___ teplá fronta

___ tlaková výše

___ mlha

___ okluzní fronta

___ tlaková niže

___ studená fronta

___ jasno

___ poloj.

___ sníh

___ zataž.

___ oblač.

___ bouřky

___ přeháň.

___ déšť

E) Homework assignment: You are a meteorologist. Prepare a long-range weather forecast for next week based on data from last year.

Appendix C
Student-Generated Themes

1) Driving, traveling by car, getting a driver's license
2) Dates, special occasions, asking someone out on a date, social graces, visiting friends, being at parties, social events
3) Dreams and goals
4) International affairs, current events, controversial issues
5) Military equipment and strategic scenarios
6) Fashion, style, clothing, shopping
7) Sports—rules, games
8) Space, travel in space

Appendix D
Student Proficiency Results (n = 5) *
Speaking, Listening, Reading

		Letter Grade
9th week results:		
0+, 0+, 1	80%	A
1+, 1+, 1+	20%	A
17th week results:		
0+, 1, 1	60%	A
1, 1, 1	20%	A
2, 2, 2	20%	A
25th week results:		
1, 1, 1	40%	B-
1, 1+, 1+	20%	A
2, 2+, 2+	20%	A
47th week results (Final DLPT)		
2, 2, 2	20%	
2, 2+, 2+	20%	
2, 3, 2+	20%	
2+, 3, 3	20%	
3, 3, 3	20%	

* Not included in these results is a dyslexic student who was subsequently dropped from the course for lack of ability.

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Four-Handed Teaching

Natalia Goroshko
Leonid Slutsky
School of Central European Languages

The popularity of four-handed teaching has been growing rapidly since its introduction two years ago in the Russian, Czech, and Slovak Departments. Subsequently, the Ukrainian Branch of the Eurasian Department has used four-handed instruction extensively in its TNET program for beginning students. This technique, developed at the Foreign Service Institute by Boris Shekhtmann and Natalia Lord for teaching advanced students, was adapted by the departments for teaching beginning students.

We have used this form of instruction on a daily basis since coming to DLI over a year ago. Working together in the Russian program, we have refined it and developed a number of new ways in which it can be used.

Activities for Four-Handed Instruction

In a number of situations four-handed instruction brings to the classroom opportunities that are not possible in a traditional classroom. Four-handed teaching introduces great flexibility into the classroom; it allows instructors to model conversations and other speech acts for students to emulate, to work with students in a variety of small group pairings (including working out lesson plans based on student learning needs), to create debates and press conferences, and to give individual attention.

Live dialogues: Compared to recorded speech, which is often artificial, fixed and limited, live dialogues are natural and serve as a model of communication for students. Students are able to observe native interaction and native discourse. Often when teachers work alone with students, they adapt their rate of speech and their choice of lexicon to the students' proficiency level. Equally often, they adopt the discourse devices of the students' native language in order to facilitate communication. These habits promote artificial speech and slow down the students' ability to develop language processing strategies in the foreign language. On the other hand, when two teachers are working together, especially if one or both are native speakers of the foreign language, they instinctively use the foreign language discourse devices with each other. Even dialectal differences appear, which broaden students' ability to process intake elements of the language. If one instructor is male and the other female, as in our case, students not only get to hear both kinds of voices, they also get to observe typical male-female interactions.

Four-handed instruction can be used to create a live dialogue on the lesson topic between two native speakers. Because teachers control the input, the dialogue can be altered during the presentation in accordance with the specific needs of students, their proficiency level, the need for formality or informality, and the topic (including vocabulary and grammar) being studied.

A live dialogue involves students in the dialogue itself, serving at the same time as a model of communication for students to emulate. For example, students can be taught paraphrasing skills by listening to a live dialogue spoken at a fairly sophisticated level, then re-enacting that dialogue on their own, using less sophisticated words.

Live dialogues can be used in the form of overheard conversations, discussions, and arguments. These activities "grab" student attention—who doesn't love to eavesdrop? Listening skills develop as students are able to listen to highly contextualized and often gesticulated speech. In addition to the attention-grabbing advantage, a live dialogue is better than taped dialogues because the unrehearsed nature of the dialogue creates natural communication, including natural pause-fillers, and teachers' body language and facial expressions allow students to assimilate cultural patterns.

Live dialogues can also be used to introduce new schemata through pre-reading, pre-speaking, and pre-writing exercises. In this way, unfamiliar cultural patterns or linguistic schemata can be presented in a contextualized mode, making the information accessible to students without the need for explanation or memorization. In fact, live dialogues have proved an effective way to begin communicative grammar classes.

Small group instruction: Students learn more in a class taught by two instructors. Four-handed instruction provides the benefits of greater individual attention; at the same time the pace and content development is more intense.

Small group instruction in a four-handed classroom can be created for several purposes such as facilitative teaching, learning styles considerations, conducting press conferences, preparation for debates and discussions, and development of role plays.

In facilitative teaching, students receive individual or small group assignments to read articles, interview a classmate, or write a composition or report. While students are working on their assignments, the teachers move around the classroom, helping individual students or small groups.

Four-handed teaching allows instructors to divide students into two groups on the basis of their learning styles. One instructor can work with global students (or auditory or right-hemisphere dominant, etc.) on activities that appeal to their learning style while the other instructor works with a group of students with a differing learning style. The activities devised for each group vary according to the learning style. Analytic students, for example, might work with decontextualized word construction patterns as a vocabulary enrichment exercise, while global students might use highly contextualized extensive reading exercises, with personalized dictionaries for the same purpose. Sometimes teachers, who also have different learning styles, work more easily with one type of student . With two teachers in the classroom, sometimes the work can be divided so that teachers can work with their preferred styles.

An activity that we have found to be popular is a press conference. Depending on the topic being studied by the students, an issue can be invented and the students can be divided into two groups: experts and journalists (or if the topic is crime, witnesses to the crime and journalists). One teacher can assist the "journalists" in preparing natural-sounding questions; the other can assist the "experts" in putting together the facts in answer to possible questions.

Another popular activity is a debate. Given a topic such as "Should forest fires be allowed to burn naturally?" or "Should women serve in combat?" or "Has the US or the CIS Army made the greatest progress in the last twenty years?" students can choose sides, with one teacher helping one side and the other teacher helping the other side to research the topic, develop their positions, and practice cross-examination prior to the debate. During the debate each teacher can stand on the side of "their" debaters, to help them as needed.

Discussions are similar to debates. Two teachers can represent two different opinions, with students arguing back and forth between themselves and with the teachers. The teachers serve as catalysts to model the discussion and keep students talking.

Role plays should be familiar to all instructors. There are even textbooks which provide guidance in setting up role plays. The advantage of using four-handed instruction for role plays is that the instructors can model the role play, become part of the role play (so that there are more different kinds of roles involved), or monitor two role plays going on simultaneously (providing more time during the class hour for student speaking practice).

Individualized instruction: Four-handed instruction also allows for one-on-one time with the students, as needed. If a particular student is having difficulty with an exercise or needs some remediation on a particular point being covered in the classroom, one of the teachers can pull that student aside while the other teacher continues working with the class as a whole.

Games are often more easily conducted with the assistance of a second instructor. In *Simon Says* (or other TPR activities, such as *Morning Aerobics*), one teacher can demonstrate while the other teacher calls out the commands, until the students have acquired the new vocabulary and can play the games without assistance. *Jeopardy* is another game where two teachers can work together effectively. With the students divided into two teams and questions on three-by-five index cards taped to the blackboard under different categories (history, sports, religion, etc.) , one teacher can run the game while the other keeps score. One fun way of asking questions from the index cards is in the form of a dialogue between the two teachers, which requires a reaction from the students in the form of a word or phrase, put into a question format. A toy which allows students to "press the button," when they know the correct response may be used in this activity.

Considerations

Implementing four-handed instruction is not always easy. We have found several considerations that must be taken into account.

1. Sometimes it is difficult to find a second teacher for four-handed teaching, since most teachers are teaching five hours a day and have other duties (homework correction, classroom preparation, training). Even when this is not the case, illness may cause a second teacher to be unavailable, perhaps because of the need for a substitute in another section. It is noteworthy, however, that a second teacher does not have to be a colleague from the same team. A colleague from another team, a student from a more advanced class or intermediate course, a department chairperson, an academic coordinator, an inservice leader, or even a dean can serve as well.

2. Teacher compatibility can be an issue. Not all teachers can work together efficiently. If one teacher dominates another, many of the advantages of four-handed instruction are lost.

3. Class preparation for four-handed teaching can take longer than class preparation for solo teaching. The teachers need to find time to get together and work out a lesson that they can both comfortably conduct.

Conclusion

While four-handed teaching does require additional resources and planning, the payoff is well worth the extra effort. This type of teaching provides another "mind" in the class. In classes which are conducted only in a foreign language from the very first moment until the very last moment of the course, teachers can sometimes be hard-pressed to find synonyms or alternative ways of expressing an idea that is unclear to students. In these cases, another instructor can help. (As the Russian expression goes, *One head is fine; two are better.)* In addition, there are greater possibilities for demonstrating what is meant by an expression.

Two teachers working together can promote cooperation and even healthy competition that is fruitful and motivating.

Most importantly, in departments where four-handed teaching is the norm, teachers have observed increased student motivation. This observation is based on interim and final student opinion questionnaires which cite four-handed instruction as "interesting," "informative," and "fun."

Authors

NATALIA GOROSHKO, Former Instructor, Russian Department B, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: semantics, pragmatics, communicative approach, learning styles.

LEONID SLUTSKY, Chief Course Developer and Instructor, Ukrainian Branch, Eurasian Department, School of Central European Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: communicative approach, video instruction, introducing cultural schemata, and games in foreign language learning.

Cultural Retrospective

Michel Nasr in *Pioneers of Social Change*, an excerpt from his diary, describes events of his childhood which had an impact on the traditions for naming men in Lebanon. His story exemplifies how acceptance of an emerging cultural pattern has to overcome community suspicion and mistrust.

By sharing his personal experience, Michel encourages all of us to reexamine our past in search of previously unnoticed values and ideas. Following his example, let's take advantage of our multi-cultural backgrounds and share events which redefined our established cultural patterns.

Looking from today's vantage point, we may get a new picture of the past. Consequently, we may understand one another better and thus equip ourselves to cope with future events. For these reasons, I encourage you to submit a three to five page reminiscence from your life to *Cultural Retrospective*.

Editor

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Pioneers of Social Change

Michel Nasr
School of Middle Eastern Languages

It was way back in the early thirties when I first set eyes on Jamila and heard the teacher call her name. She was sitting in the desk next to my older sister in the one-room, one-teacher village school. Perhaps she was my sister's age, about nine years old. A week later, the teacher felt that I needed help in reading, so he sent me out of the school room to be tutored by Fuad, one of the older and advanced students in the school. I don't recall how much Fuad taught me in reading but I do remember that I was impressed by what he told me about Jamila, as I learned my first social lesson outside of my home and apart from immediate family members.

He told me to be cautious of Jamila because she was not afraid of boys and could curse just as well as the worst of them. He went on to tell me that Jamila was the only child of Georges Bahry, the watchman of the village land, and his wife, Adele. Fuad also told me that Georges Bahry had asked to be called Abu-Jamila (which means "father of Jamila"). He told me a few other things about Jamila's ventures and adventures as a girl.

Fuad's cautioning me to be careful with Jamila made no difference to me because at that time of my life Jamila was a girl and I was a boy and "boys are boys and girls are girls and, as far as I knew, we stay away from each other." However, the news that Jamila used curse words gave her a special awe and put her in a strange and unique position in my imagination.

Most of all I could not understand why her father would ask to be called "Abu-Jamila." My father is called Abu-Michel, Fuad's father was called Abu-Saleem, and the father of my friend Suleiman was called Abu-Suleiman. All the men in the village are called "Abu-________ ," according to the name of their first-born boy. Those who have no children or those who have only girls are called by their first names. Why would Georges Bahry, that tall, strong fellow who carried the long stick with the well-formed knob, want to be called Abu-Jamila when Jamila is a girl and not a boy? That Georges Bahry, to me, was a strange man!

The other girls in the school told my sister that their parents had warned them not to associate much with Jamila because her father had spoiled her and he didn't punish her when he heard her "cussing" like the boys. Fuad never told me anything more about Jamila, but what I heard from him that day and what I heard from my sister later on put me on the alert and aroused my curiosity to know more about Jamila—but only if I could keep my distance from her!

It was about a year later when I first heard Jamila use a curse word. By that time she had crossed the line between boys and girls and started a sort of friendship with my friend Suleiman. She used a curse word when she was talking to Suleiman, in my presence. Perhaps she enjoyed, maliciously, watching Suleiman and me exchange glances to express our surprise and embarrassment. If only she could have seen and heard how much we repeated her word and mimicked her voice and roared with laughter after she had gone. Suleiman told me what I had heard before—that her father knew that she used curse words, yet he didn't punish her. We agreed that her father, mighty as he appeared to be, was a strange man.

During that year I got to see more of Jamila but always when Suleiman and I were together. She got into the habit of asking me to do little things for her, such as sharpening her pencil with my pocket knife, holding her books while she did something, and other little tasks of this sort. I grew accustomed to her demands and I didn't mind doing things for her, as long as they were not frequent enough to be noticed by Suleiman and other boys and ultimately become a cause of embarrassment to me. It was springtime of that year when Jamila asked me on a Friday evening to meet her on Saturday in Wadi El-Ayn, a small valley next to the village, where she was going to take her goat with the twin kids to graze from morning till noon. I don't know why I accepted her invitation. I just did it without much thought. Perhaps I mostly did it because I had always wanted to have a goat with twin kids like Jamila's.

However, when I went home that evening I began to think about the situation. I reviewed the things that I knew about Jamila. In particular, I thought about the incident when Jamila had come to visit my sister and found a group of us boys, including Suleiman, going through a game of arm wrestling. I remembered how she approached us and challenged us to arm wrestle with her! She seemed to enjoy seeing how surprised and stunned we were to hear her challenge us. None of us said a word. The secret awe and fear we boys held for Jamila seemed to take on body and soul, become visible to our eyes, and speak to us in words audible to our ears, saying, "Cowards, cowards." Then she looked at me and said, "What about you? Won't you arm wrestle with me?" What a shock it was! But I had to face it. However, I made one last attempt to avoid the issue by giving her a chance to withdraw her challenge when I said, "I sure would, if you really mean it." As a reply, she rolled up her sleeve and approached the table. I also approached the table from the other side and looked with apprehension at her well-built arm in comparison to my bony arm. I kept thinking what a shame it's going to be if Jamila beats me and I was determined to give it all I had in order to avoid the humiliation of being defeated by a girl. Suleiman was made the referee and the boys stood speechless around the table as they were going to witness an unprecedented event in the history of our village—a girl arm wrestling with a boy. Suleiman made sure that our hands were in the right position and counted to three and gave the signal to begin, "Go!" I was surprised that Jamila's arm went down so easily! The boys cheered, I was relieved, and Jamila was not unhappy. In fact, she was smiling and seemed to enjoy the whole episode and take pleasure and pride in having initiated it.

That evening I began to doubt if Jamila had had any intention of beating me. If she had meant to help me gain status and recognition among the boys of the village, she definitely achieved what she had set out to do.

Saturday morning I was up with the sunrise. I played around the house for a while and took off for Wadi El-Ayn without telling my mother where I was going because I felt sure that she wouldn't let me go if she knew. When I arrived in Wadi El-Ayn, Jamila, the goat, and the kids were already there. She asked me to hold the goat's leash while she went about collecting wildflowers and humming a soft tune. She came back with a bunch of them. She asked me to smell them and she quizzed me to find out if I knew what each variety was called and what their colors were. Then she taught me how to take one of the little white daisies and pluck an infinite number of petals, one at a time, to find out if someone "loves you" or "loves you not."

We went from one part of the valley to another until we came to a place under a tall oak tree that was crowned with flowering malaa, a kind of jasmine ivy in full bloom. She ordered me to go up the tree and get a branch of malaa. "And be careful not to let the flowers fall off," she said. I fought my way up the tree and got the branch and gave it to her. She was delighted with it and said I was a strong fellow. Then she broke the branch of malaa into two and made crowns out of it. Then she said, "Come and stand beside me." I was curious but, as usual, I obeyed without questioning her intentions. She proceeded to put one of the crowns on my head and the other on her head and she said, "Hold my hand." Then she said, "We are now engaged. Do you understand?" I said I did but I didn't tell her that I was quite worried because I had never heard of people getting engaged when they were that young. I asked her not to tell anybody that we were engaged and I told her that, if she did, I wouldn't speak to her for the rest of my life. She made no promises. She only laughed, but apparently nobody was told.

In my mind, Jamila and her father, Georges Bahry, were true pioneers of social change in the conservative village where I grew up. Fifteen years later, Amin Nasrellah, a great-grandson of the Sheikh Nasrellah, fathered only one child, a daughter named May. Quite quickly Amin became known, and is still known, as Abu-May in that little village of Kelhat in northern Lebanon.

Author

MICHEL NASR, Academic Specialist, Arabic Department C, School of Middle Eastern Languages, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: materials development, integration of language and culture, testing, language acquisition.

Dialog on Language Instruction
1993, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 59-62

ACTFL '92 Impressions

Salah-Dine Hammoud
Curriculum and Instruction

Foreign Languages: New Visions, New Worlds was the theme of the 26th annual ACTFL meeting in Rosemont, Illinois. More than 300 sessions and workshops took place at the O'Hare Hyatt Regency and Convention Center from November 20 through 22, 1992.

As with any professional gathering, this was a chance to assess where the profession is and where it is headed in the future. This year's theme reflected some of the tremendous changes that have resulted from world events recently, impelling new attitudes and opinions on a number of issues that bear on foreign language education.

One of the highlights of the convention was the keynote address of Charles Osgood, CBS News commentator renowned for his social and political wit. In a spectacular hour-and-a-half entertainment, Osgood even treated the large and receptive audience to a display of his banjo-picking and harmonica talent. He regaled the audience, providing points for reflection with his humor on topics like the presidency and the not-so-rosy state of the nation's schools and educational standards, and he related a moving personal story attesting the value of foreign language learning. Osgood told of a terrible automobile accident in which his wife was hurt in France, where they had spent several summer vacations since their daughters became students at New York City's *Lycée Français*. Having learned a little French during vacations, Osgood was able to communicate at the most basic level with the hospital staff. He was particularly happy to be able to understand their expression of compassion and empathy for what he and his wife were going through. Happily, Mrs. Osgood recovered and what little French her husband had learned served him well in interacting with native speakers and understanding their shared feelings of joy in his wife's recovery. This allowed him to recognize and emphasize in his address the often underestimated role of foreign language educators, and the importance of learning foreign languages in a world where more compassion, intercultural tolerance, and international understanding are needed.

Osgood's address set the tone for a lively convention that, in addition to business meetings, included sessions on just about every issue in foreign language education. While some duplication of knowledge was inevitable with so many sessions in each area, there was original research of particularly current interest to scholars and practitioners. A renewed focus on learner variables, learning styles, and strategies appeared in at least a dozen presentations, some by noted figures in this area—Anna Chamot, Michael O'Malley, Elaine Horwitz, and Rebecca Oxford.

A session on motivation, styles, and strategies research was presented by Rebecca Oxford and Sukero Ito. Oxford pointed out that, through forging research partnerships and alliances with foreign language educators from institutions in other countries, more insight can be reached, perhaps opening up possibilities for universal application. Both presenters emphasized that there are more variables that affect motivation for language learning than are represented by Gardner's (1972, 1985) now classic dichotomy of instrumental versus integrative motivation. Next, Oxford reported that she and her colleagues had investigated motivational variables and other factors: gender, course level, previous foreign language experience, learning styles, and strategies. According to her, they examined how these factors are related to success in learning in distance education programs using satellite television for instruction. All these dimensions were found to correlate with success in language learning.

Next, Elaine Horwitz and Richard Kern gave a presentation on beliefs about language that are held by learners and teachers and how these beliefs can contribute to learner anxiety, motivation, and success. In pointing out how the results of their research could help in the real world, Horwitz advised that the more realistic an idea learners have about what to expect when they enter a foreign language program, the better their chances for success. To ease debilitating anxiety, she recommended answering questions like how long it takes to learn a language or how difficult a language is. Both presenters pointed out that some learners' beliefs have to be confronted and debunked, particularly the assumption that some people just cannot learn. They also pointed out that if teachers share with their students their own learning experiences, difficulties, and triumphs, they can become more credible and trustworthy role models for students.

Next, a presentation focused on classroom activities. Mana Derakhshani and Julie Storme of Saint Mary's College in Notre Dame, Indiana discussed integration of skills using film as input for listening comprehension. Scenes depicting sequences of literary works provided the basis for exciting listening activities demonstrations, where the discussion centered on the French novel *Le Rouge et le Noir*. For students who had read the novel in a literature class, the listening exercises complemented their study and brought the classic work closer to reality for them. Derakhshani and Storme also used the news and a homemade video skit to illustrate the multiple possibilities available for teachers who seek a variety of sources of input using video.

In an interesting session on the topic of explicit grammar instruction, Bill VanPatten of the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, added some practical views to the ongoing debate about whether to teach grammar and if so, when and how. The size of the crowd at this early morning Sunday presentation made it clear that many take this topic seriously. VanPatten began by describing how grammar instruction in foreign language materials has evolved from traditional mechanical drill, to meaningful drill, to communication drill. In this evolution, deductive grammar instruction has adhered to a rigid pattern of explanation, meaningful practice, and communicative practice. Illustrating his argument with examples in Spanish, he noted that grammar instruction has put the cart before the horse, disregarding the way language is processed by learners, who generally follow an acquisition sequence: input, then intake, then developing a system, and finally output. VanPatten suggested that learners first be taught strategies for processing input, for example by identifying the explicit subjects in a sentence. He added that morphology could be dealt with later, keeping in mind that learners generally prefer to process lexical rather than grammatical items. In teaching grammar explicitly, Van Patten offered practical suggestions: Keep the meaning in focus, teach one thing at a time, use both written and oral input, move from sentences to connected discourse, remember the psycholinguistic processes, and attend to the affective aspects of grammar by involving learners in responses by using visuals and by engaging them in doing something with the input, such as showing or pointing out things.

Following presentations by Major Michael Everson of the U.S. Air Force Academy, Corinne Mantle of Colorado State University at Fort Collins, Jean Teal of the Shawnee Mission Public Schools in Kansas, and Dedi Walker of Iowa City Schools, a fervent discussion took place in the Special Interest Group (SIG) on teacher education. These presenters all spoke of the need to recruit and retain quality foreign language teachers in public schools and colleges. Mentioned among the ways to fulfill this need were: creating attractive pre-service and in-service development programs aimed at teacher empowerment; exploring ways to enhance the proficiency levels of entering and practicing teachers; and providing opportunities to gain experience in target language countries. Participants generated for discussion lengthy lists of expectations that hiring authorities might have for well qualified teachers. One presenter included in her list of requirements a good level of awareness of learning styles as an important dimension in teaching effectiveness. Another presenter listed cues for helping students to become citizens of the global community, as well as for developing several personality-linked qualities such as risk-taking, the ability to "let go" of one's "own" students, and being a lifelong learner. The discussion found a keen and responsive audience.

DLIFLC was well represented at ACTFL '92. Together with DLIFLC Provost Ray Clifford, President of ACTFL, more than twenty faculty and staff with the Commandant represented various schools and divisions. Many gave well received presentations in a variety of areas, adding value to the discussions, the research, the exchange, and to the field of foreign language education at large.

Large crowds were drawn to the Materials Exhibit and the Tech Fair. Buzzwords were in the air: multimedia, CD-ROM technology, interactivity of courseware. Much of the innovation in these areas was related to computer technology and its promise for making life easier for learners and teachers. An impressive array of core and supplementary materials was exhibited by various public and private sector presenters and publishers.

The social events both small and large also added for many a festive element of seeing old friends, renewing contacts, and making new ones.

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Author

SALAH-DINE HAMMOUD, Training Specialist, Faculty and Staff Development Branch, Curriculum and Instruction, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: foreign language education, applied sociolinguistics, Arabic as a foreign language.

Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit an article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References*. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 16 (1)*, pp. 93-95.

Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of manuscripts should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g. (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Notes should be used for substantive information only, and note they should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript. Subsequently they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes*.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, videotapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a *critical* assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8-1/2"x11" paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1-1/4" on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An author's name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLI), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

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JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306. Interests: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

Authors are encouraged to prepare their manuscripts on the Xerox 6085 which is available in all Schools and Directorates. Users of the Xerox may contact Ani Frazier (5656) for information on using the footnote option as well as information on using tabs for bibliographic style. Authors should submit both a floppy disc and a paper copy of the manuscript. If the manscript is produced on a computer other than a Xerox, the file should be downloaded as an ASCII file for submission on floppy.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed., 1983), available from the American Psychological Association, 1200 17th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036.

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their names on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3"x5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DCI-C (Editor), Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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DIALOG ON LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, Commandant
Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center
ATFL: DCI - C
ATTN: Editor, *Dialog on Language Instruction*
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944 - 5006

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Robert Di Donato, Professor, Miami University of Ohio

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1994, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 1-18

Interview with Robert Di Donato

Lidia Woytak
Defense Language Institute

Professor Robert Di Donato, a strong proponent of proficiency-oriented instruction, presented several workshops and a lecture to DLI faculty in September 1992. The workshops, "Setting the Stage for Interaction in the Foreign Language Class" and "From Task- to Project-Based Language Instruction," focused on a review of communicative activities; his lecture, "Progress toward Proficiency," emphasized theoretical aspects of proficiency-oriented instruction.

Throughout the workshops and lecture, several common themes called for a positive attitude on the part of the teacher, for personalization, and for contextualization. Professor Di Donato, an acknowledged practitioner, not only talked about these concepts, but modeled them throughout the workshops; he started, for example, by greeting teachers by first name and referring to specific incidents which had occurred during the workshops they attended.

In the Defense Language Institute workshops, Professor Di Donato also demonstrated the need for positive encouragement of students. While discussing the importance of student dialogue journals, he emphasized that teachers need to contribute to individual student entries, explaining that if a beginning student of Polish writes, *Na imię mi Paweł. Lubię uczyć się polskiego* (My name is Paul. I like to study Polish), he would respond, *Pawle, cieszę się, że lubisz polski* (Paul, I'm glad you like Polish).

The sensitivity and knowledge which Professor Robert Di Donato brings to the foreign language classroom is rooted in his extensive education and experience and in his own ethnic background. Although Di Donato earned Ph.D. and M.A. degrees in literature from the Ohio State University, he quickly switched to the study of languages. As a full-fledged language practitioner, teaching suited him admirably, and he went on to chair the Department of German, Russian, and East Asian Languages at Miami University in Ohio, where his students quickly learned about his Italian background through his stories about Aunt Filomena and her hilarious adventures in New York City.

Prior to his current position at Miami University, Di Donato taught at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and during the summer at Middlebury College. He also taught German at the

University of Wisconsin at Madison and at the Ohio State University. He has given numerous workshops, keynote speeches, and conference presentations throughout the United States, Canada, and other countries.

Professor Di Donato is the recipient of the highest awards, grants, and fellowships in his field, including the Florence Steiner Award for Leadership in Foreign Language Education and the Robert J. Ludwig Award from New York State. He has been awarded grants by the Central States Conference, the Knapp Foundation, the University of Wisconsin, the Fulbright-Hayes Foundation, the Ohio State University, and the NDEA Institute. Professor Di Donato was President of the American Association of Teachers of German during 1987-88.

In 1991, Professor Robert di Donato published a textbook for first-year German, *Deutsch na klar!* which has been used with success in the German Department at the Defense Language Institute. Di Donato has published articles in *Foreign Language Annals, ADFL Bulletin*, and other journals. In 1990, he completed a video project, "Telejournal Deutsch." Currently, Robert Di Donato is on 2-year assignment with McGraw-Hill in San Francisco where he is involved in several projects dealing with teacher education and the development of foreign language skills.

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W: I enjoyed both of your workshops very much. Yesterday morning I walked into your classroom late, a little nervous, and you said in a positive tone of voice, "Come on in, there is a seat for you over there." Everybody seemed relaxed and ready to learn, and my first thought was, "I'm going to enjoy this class."

You must have a recipe for creating this type of pleasant cooperative atmosphere. I observed during your workshop that you volunteered to talk about your own background before venturing into students' personal lives. For example, while commenting on your name, you went on to tell us about your Italian origins. I felt that was one of the bridges you kept providing for the students. My own thoughts were, "I am a part of this workshop; I want to contribute to it." What made you leave the convenient, rather distant role of a teacher?

D: I have never thought of teaching in that way. I have always thought of teaching as closeness, as being able to touch someone, not in a physical way, necessarily, although in my workshops and even in teaching, I do a lot of touching. Touching is another one of the bridges that allows me to actually make communication with somebody. I try to do that on a number of levels. Touching sometimes has a very calming feeling. People who come to my workshops are nervous sometimes, they don't know what to expect, they tend to think that they are going to have to sit through this theory, to sift through it and try to apply it to their classrooms. I think that it helps to approach and meet them halfway. Part of it is that I talk about my own background; people are able to relate to me on that level. They realize that they are in the same position that I am, even if I am in front of the class. Communicating with people through touch simply reduces the filter, the anxiety. One time I was giving a workshop in Milwaukee and a woman stood up at the end of the workshop—I admire her for doing this—and she said "You know, I just hate people like you." I said, "Why do you say that?" She said, "Because your classes are so perfect and you teach so perfectly, you do everything right." I said, "That may be the impression I give, because you see so many wonderful activities and they go off so well, but many of these things that I do in class don't work the first time."

W: I have attended many different workshops and usually the atmosphere is not as relaxed as it was this time. You demonstrated that a teacher has a great impact on what goes on emotionally among the students.

D: As you know, people have tried to define and isolate the influence of the teacher's personality. It is almost indefinable. We can isolate certain characteristics and say, "If a teacher does this, it will have this effect." If a teacher comes into class in a very optimistic mood, that will be infectious. If the teacher comes in and says, "This is a lousy textbook," students will think it is a lousy textbook. We know certain things, but we cannot define personality. There are too many variables. One of my very good colleagues said to me, "You know, Bob, in your workshops it's not just what you say to teachers, it's how you say it to them that is effective."

W: When you talked about the personality profile activity, this aroused a lot of interest, discussion, and humor. In my opinion, it worked so well because you didn't just start with the activity. You laid the foundation by telling a story first. You related the activity to yourself and then the students followed up.

D: It humanizes. In that activity, there is a line that says, *I am __ years old*. Okay, many teachers will be reluctant to admit their age, but I think it simply humanizes you if you say, "I am 47," or

"I am . . . " and state your age. Your students get a better picture, they see you not less as a teacher, but less as an authoritative figure and more as a person who is interested in their learning a language, and in their welfare also. By the way, doing that models the activity for them.

W: I noticed that participants like it when you treat them as individuals to whom you can relate on a personal basis. You pay attention to their names, and you have a picture of every person or know that this person has a certain strong point. Such personal attention creates a nice atmosphere. You're trying to find out more about the identity of your learners. You mentioned that, to accommodate students individually, it is necessary to plan tasks for faster and slower students.

D: The partner interview with an expanding slot is like that. That kind of activity is very good, because systematization in education makes us think that everybody does the same thing at the same pace, but we know that it is not true. We know that not all students finish on time, for instance.

W: You mentioned in your workshop that teachers do not need to be bound by one method. You said you can use as many methods as you want. Can you elaborate on this?

D: Yes, I think so. I don't like to use the word *methods* because sometimes we confuse methods and approaches. Teachers do not need to be bound by one method, one approach, or one strategy. They can use as many as they feel comfortable with. The point that I have made in these workshops is that you have to find methods, approaches, strategies, and techniques that fit your personality and that fit your classes' personalities. You also have to find those methods, approaches, techniques, and strategies that you can control, and not ones that control you. Very frequently we buy into one methodology. That works for some people, I'm not saying that it is the worst thing in the world you can do. But what happens usually is that the methodology drives us. I think it is important that we control the methodology rather than vice versa.

W: In your workshop, you mentioned the counseling-learning method. Could you tell us about the status of this method in foreign language instruction?

D: It is a system whereby adult learners of language function because they begin to say things in their native language and then these things are translated by the teacher into the target language until a system of language is built up. I use parts of it in my language classes because it is valuable to be able to give students positive language experiences, even when the student is not sure how to say something in the language. Even the natural approach allows students, in the beginning especially, to respond in their native language. There is nothing wrong with the teacher giving the equivalent in English in such situations.

W: Would you use English mostly in the beginning of foreign language instruction?

D: It is best to use the foreign language at all times. However, English can be used very cautiously. If language form becomes too important, rather than content, the students will struggle with the form. The content will not come out at all. But if they need to throw in three or four words in their native language and I can help them out by giving them those words in the foreign language—because after all I am the facilitator—then I think that is important, because what is motivating them is the content of what we are doing, not the fact that they can use the language form.

W: Thus, you assist them in following their own paths of interest.

D: That's right. I become the enabler.

W: What is your rationale for emphasizing the need to create opportunities to act, react, and interact in the classroom?

D: First of all, you are going to have a static class if you don't have students acting. Language is a living thing, so they need to use the language in some meaningful way to carry out a real-life task. This can be done by having them react to something they see or hear, by interacting with somebody to complete some sort of task, or simply by acting. Reacting and interacting all imply acting, so all of these notations are inextricably bound up with one another. People don't run around doing monologues. Even if they did, they would be reacting to something. They react verbally or in writing or sometimes by a gesture. Interacting is what language is for. That is what communication is all about. There used to be a term, *one-way communication,* which seemed paradoxical to me. Communication is usually two-way.

W: You presented two well thought-out activities in which language and culture were integrated. For the one involving a discussion about two paintings, you provided information about them to the students. You were discussing the paintings in German, so the activity was a perfect example of integration in the target language. Next, in your review of the activity based on two stories about works of art stolen from a museum, you pointed out that one story was taken from a leading newspaper and one from a local newspaper, so that the students could focus on intracultural differences.

D: They also focused on the differences in content. The idea is that if you can compare two pictures, you can also compare two texts having the same theme. Yes, they could subsequently focus on the whole notion of newspapers: What does a local newspaper do that a national newspaper does not do? In another example, I showed a visual of a grandfather visiting a family. Afterwards, I said that it was not really a grandfather, but a doctor. This visual alerted the students to the fact that pictures are not always what they seem to be. In that picture you could see a number of things—the socioeconomic level of the family and why this picture was from Northern Germany rather than Southern Germany. Just by the architecture of the house, by the roof, you could infer a lot of data.

W: You could see that when we look at a picture we are also bound by culture. If a German looked at the picture he or she would recognize that it was a doctor because he was carrying a doctor's bag. I believe it is common for a doctor in Germany to visit patients, but unlikely here.

D: Actually that is not quite correct. The German teachers in the audience didn't pick up on that until later. I think it was Sabine Atwell, the Chair at the German Department, who said, "I see the doctor's bag, but it is not common for doctors to make house calls in Germany." The ad is supporting this notion of doctors making house calls again. In fact, I think that if we had shown this ad in the '50s, people would not have thought anything of a doctor making a house call, because back then doctors did that. Nowadays the ad is somewhat misplaced, timewise; that is why we don't jump onto the fact that this is a doctor. I also have to say that the doctor's briefcase, because of the copy of the photo, is not clear.

W: How important in your opinion is a lesson plan for a teacher? How much should a teacher do before entering the classroom?

D: I go over and over that question with my teaching assistants. Lesson planning is one of those things that never leaves you. I have been teaching as a professor, high school teacher, and teaching assistant for the last 25 years. I still do lesson plans; I don't do them in the kind of detail that I did at one time, because some things have become second nature and I know now how to sequence activities in my mind. I may only put the title of an activity on the lesson plan, but I know how it works and what steps to do. I know how to go from textbook activities to, let's say, an overhead, or an activity on the blackboard, or a video activity. I can make those transitions, but only a wealth of experience in teaching allows for that. Beginning teachers have to plan all of that out, need to have detailed lesson plans as a kind of support. As they teach more, this becomes second nature. I don't think they need to do that amount of detail in lesson planning, unless it is a new kind of activity. In my workshops I frequently put the teachers through the activities. I make them feel what it is like to do them, because if you hear something you forget it rather quickly. If you hear it and see it, you remember it a little more; but if you hear it, see it, and do it, you are less likely to forget it. Also, our teachers are no longer just carrying the textbook into the class. They have resource kits, overhead transparencies, video components to integrate; all that takes a lot of planning and is very important. The other thing is that if the lesson is well planned, the goals are more visible. Goals should always be there in the back of your mind while you are doing lesson planning. By the way, every day should have a goal: *What do I want students to be able to do by the end of this hour*?

W: In your DLI lecture, "Progress toward Proficiency," you talked about meeting the daily needs of students. Should these daily needs be well defined?

D: In my practice, they are well defined. I expect my students to prepare an authentic text or two prior to our meeting. I am trying to meet the needs of students in terms of using the four skills—first of all, I attempt to use various techniques that will meet the needs of those students, various kinds of skill-getting and skill-using activities that will address those students' needs. Not all students want to do listening; not all want to speak; not all of them want to do all these different things, and I don't have time as a teacher of 25 students to do a learning styles chart on each of my students. The typical teacher has to say, "I know there are different learning styles in my class." There are lots of things that you can do to figure out how your students learn, but providing a variety of activities that address all the learning modes is crucial. You will notice that I not only address the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, but I also address the aesthetics of language, which are frequently undermined in language teaching. That is why I give creative kinds of assignments rather than the essay, which may not appeal to everyone. I let them do collages, because that activity has to be well organized. I let them do an oral presentation on the collage so that they can show their creative side if they choose to do that. They are not forced into a particular kind of activity, there is no hierarchy, so that an essay would be better than doing a collage. No. They are both on the same level for me.

W: You have talked about teaching style versus learning styles. Somewhere there seems to be a boundary where teaching style has to meet different learning styles. How do you define the line between the two, because naturally your style to a degree is influenced by learner style and vice versa.

D: That is very true. I think the line is defined over years of experience by what activities are successful. If I find, for example, that there are certain activities that do not work well with students, I realize even though I may try them two or three times and they are still not successful, that there is something amiss. Either it is that I am not presenting the activity properly, or it is an activity that does not appeal to students. The way they learn doesn't encompass this kind of activity and therefore I simply drop it. I do end up with a repertoire of activities. By the way, the repertoire changes. I ran into somebody who was in one of my workshops 10 years ago and they said, "You know, I still do that activity called the "pressure cooker," and I thought, "I haven't done the pressure cooker in years. Now, what was that?" I keep developing new activities, trying to push the limit to provide students with interesting and varied activities; I believe so much in experimentation, experimentation that is informed. If I read something in an article, I may say, "This is a great sounding activity. I couldn't really do it that way, but I'm going to try it." I don't think it hurts students one bit, even if the activity fails, and I always learn something from it. I always remind teachers to drop a failing activity immediately, because some of them think once they have started the activity, they have to complete it.

W: You made a distinction between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. In DLI's context would you recommend that we call new teachers pre-service teachers?

D: It depends on the amount of experience they have had. DLI is a new teaching context for them, so they would be pre-service teachers here; but some of your teachers do have lots of experience, so they are not pre-service teachers in the sense of just beginning. The first three years of teaching are the hardest, by the way.

W: What would you identify as the essential elements of a viable in-service training?

D: I think that one of the most important elements of an in-service training program would be analysis and assessment of what teachers do. We need to get back to the term which was big in the '70s, *reflective teaching*, calling on teachers to reflect on what they do. They look at the goals of their course, they look at lesson plans, they look at teaching styles, and they ask themselves, "Am I actually fulfilling what I should be fulfilling?" They need to have a good grasp of the methodology, techniques, and approaches that work for them; and teachers need to be able to turn to one another. Rather than what we call in-service programs, I would like to see continual in-service training, in the sense that every day I do something that will help me to be a better teacher. I go to another person's class and observe, I have a lunch discussion about a particular topic that is of interest to me. I have questions, and I can go to a supervisor who knows more about content-based instruction than I do. In other words, the most essential element of an in-service training program is the desire to be a better teacher and not just to do things the way the teacher has done them over the past 10 or 15 years, but to get excited about doing things.

W: In these two articles you pointed out that an in-service or pre-service training would be more effective if teachers were more involved in it. You also stated that teacher input into issues needs to be addressed more adequately in in-service training.

D: I have a couple of things to say on this issue. When teachers go to in-service sessions for further training, they sometimes receive so much training that they become confused. They go to many conferences—the ones who do go to conferences—and they find new approaches, new techniques, new methodologies coming out, and they feel overwhelmed and less confident about what they are doing in the classroom. So rather than adding to what they are doing and benefiting them in that way, frequently the training makes them feel they have to revamp their whole teaching style, because it has made them insecure. Teachers don't have to revamp their entire teaching style. Further training and in-service education should serve to hone their skills and make them better teachers, not make them start from point one, because we could all be starting from point one over and over again. That is not the way that we should react to in-service education. We need more classroom research telling us how to teach better, but it should not make us insecure. Instead it should make us better teachers, and I think teachers sometimes have a problem with that, because they read an article, and they say, "I should be doing this," and maybe they shouldn't. Maybe they have to say, "Well, my students are successful in language, I do get my students to a Level 2, so it doesn't mean that I won't evolve as a teacher, that I have to throw overboard approaches and techniques that I am using now, in favor of adopting something new, because it's new."

W: In other words, teachers should be aware of a bandwagon syndrome.

D: They sometimes jump on that. Proficiency, too, was criticized for that at the very beginning; people were cautious about proficiency. I think that was good, because it made a lot of people scrutinize it, it made people attack it, which is good. People tried to make it better.

W: You need a new idea to energize teachers.

D: I think content-based instruction is doing that now. Some teachers are very, very interested in it. I think others use bits and pieces of content-based instruction. They use a kind of a mosaic, content-based with emphasis on forms, and they alternate these kinds of things.

W: You quote Rubin, who states, "Attitudinal change must sometimes precede the introduction of a technique." What kind of attitude are you looking for in a teacher?

D: The flexible attitude. Today I said that I do not want to hear, "No, no, no, we can't." I do not want to see the glass half empty, I want to see the glass half full. When you look at these projects that I am going to describe in my workshop, I want you to be able to say, "We may not be able to do it that way at DLI, but let's find a way." That is an example of flexible attitude. Do you know what? When I prefaced my workshop that way this afternoon, did you see how productive that was? Teachers are ingenious and they can find ways around things, but they have to work at it. Teaching is not an easy thing, it is a very hard thing to do.

W: Certainly. As a teacher, you would like to know something about your students. What do you need to know about them beforehand to be effective?

D: What I need to know about them comes out through the personalization activities that I do with them, where students share personal information about themselves. Those are the same activities that I have in class, and that gives me a background. For example, after the first week I might do a guessing game describing certain people in the class with things they have said that week. Then the students have to identify them. Or they do personality profile types of activities. To provide more opportunities to communicate, I ask for students' telephone numbers and subsequently leave messages in German for them at home on their answering machines and have them carry out tasks involving other people. I also talk to students on the telephone to find out more about them. They're surprised when I call them at home in the evening and speak German with them over the phone. Sometimes this is an activity that flies in my face. I remember just this past semester I did that with students in my conversation class, and one of my students said, "Oh, I'm sorry, I've got to run now," and she hung up. I had no way of knowing if she really did have to run, so I had to believe her.

W: I noticed that humor plays an important role in your classes.

D: I also have to say what kind of humor. The students see that I can laugh at myself, that I don't take myself seriously all the time. There is a part of me that is irreverent about myself and the world, and I think that students pick up on that. They see that I can make mistakes and think of myself as being silly for making these mistakes. They like that, it humanizes me. It removes part of that coolness factor. It moves me more toward them; it is part of that touching kind of thing that I have.

W: This approach destroys barriers that sometimes exist between people. What I enjoyed in your workshops was that you had positive expectations of your students. If students see no barriers between themselves and the teacher, then they do not create new ones among themselves and they can interact. You talked about error correction. How would you go about it so that they would know that their speech is being checked and at the same time you wouldn't interrupt when they are trying to be creative?

D: Error correction is important for me, because I do believe in our increased attention to accuracy. I do normally correct my students, but sometimes it doesn't happen. Today, for example, a student made a mistake doing the numbers in German. I let it go by because I expected to hear the right answer. It was a wrong teacher behavior, okay? I expected to hear the right answer, but the right answer didn't come. I try to find ways of doing error correction which make students realize that I am concerned that they made the error but that it doesn't mean that they are not learning the language. It doesn't mean that they have made fools of themselves. That is why I like this technique of personal error correction through the notes that I give them when I sit with pairs of students. I don't interrupt the flow of communication between them, but afterwards I say, "This is what you did well, this is what you need to improve." It's all there on a small piece of paper for them. So their ego is intact.

W: You have published a first-year German textbook called *Deutsch na klar!* What distinguishes this textbook from other communicative textbooks?

D: *Deutsch na klar!* is based on authentic materials. I authored it with two colleagues. We included authentic materials of many sorts within the textbook and divided each of the chapters into three parts. *Words in Context*—or vocabulary in context, if you will; *Grammar in Context*; and *Reading in Context*. Authentic materials pervade all three parts. The *Writing in Context* is done mostly in the workbook. And there is also a *Listening in Context*, done in two ways. It is an extensive laboratory program, and an in-class listening tape that the teacher takes into class. There are usually three or four listening activities per chapter built right in. The teacher will move from, let's say, a communicative activity to a listening activity or vice versa. Authentic materials are used in the vocabulary section, to have the students go into them and isolate the vocabulary words that are needed for the communicative activities. In a sense, this is startlingly new, because it is now materials rather than word lists that are driving the acquisition of vocabulary. Thus, vocabulary is acquired through authentic materials and it is not the generic vocabulary that you normally find in textbooks. *Deutsch na klar!* focuses on vocabulary that students will actually encounter when they go to Germany. The same thing happens in the grammar. We use authentic materials to illustrate the grammar points to the students so that they can see them in the context in which they are used. In the readings, we have chosen what I think are interesting texts for the students. These are prefaced by pre-reading activities which help to get the schema of the students in line with the schema of the culture that comes from the reading. Post-reading activities follow, in which we have students working with the text, in an intensive decoding phase. We have them doing all sorts of vocabulary and comprehension activities. Then there is an *After-You-Read* section where—June Phillips calls this the transfer integratable skills stage—students take the reading one step further and apply it to a real situation. Those are some of the new things. The authentic materials are replete with culture. We do not just use culture boxes in the book, there is so much culture that can be drawn out. We do give marginal hints to the teacher and say, "You should point out that in this particular ad, or in this particular text, such and such," but frequently the teachers will know more about a piece of material than I as author know, and they have a lot of input. That is what I mean when I say that the teacher can really take the textbook in hand and make it a working tool, rather than making the teacher a tool of the textbook.

W: In your workshop you emphasized that it is important to try to get in touch with a German family, and not just rely on cultural stereotypes.

D: That is why I began the activity with telephone books, which I've been doing for 14 or 15 years now. I felt that you could not say, "Germans do this or Austrians do that." Different families in Germany react differently to things and have different customs and do things in different ways. If students can contact one particular family at random through the telephone book, not knowing the family at all, it can lead to some very nice intercultural relationships and they can find out things about the culture through the basis of one family.

W: Sociologists would find your approach very interesting.

D: My students find it interesting also. They also find it very crazy at first, I should say.

W: Probably in many instances you found out that the actual information did not coincide with the stereotype.

D: That is very true. I also found out many things that I did not know about, about what certain families do in certain instances. I realize that is kind of vague, but I always had the idea that Germans did a particular thing on a particular holiday. By polling or writing to different families and asking them specifically what they did, we found out that that was not true at all, that some families did not do the kinds of things that I thought they did. I had generalized about the culture too much.

W: Thus, instead of taking things for granted, you go into the field.

D: This is the analogy that I always refer to: Just as students reach into the authentic materials in my textbook and draw cultural knowledge, vocabulary, and grammar from them, they reach into the life of a German family and learn similar kinds of things.

W: Also, I would imagine that while they are looking for certain facts, they get coincidental information.

D: They certainly do, especially with the *Trashy Story* activity in which the students write and have German families send a week's worth of their paper trash. Then they really go into sociological aspects of German society. They can extrapolate and abstract from the documents that they receive, the pieces of torn-up bills, statements, and things like that. Thus, they can piece together a profile of the family and their place in society.

W: Thus they get exposed to the terms which are used in the country. Did you write *Deutsch na klar!* mostly for the teacher, or for the student, or for both?

D: That's an interesting question, Lidia. Very few people ask the question. I hope that every textbook that I write will not only teach the students the language, but will also teach the teachers how to use the approach that I take. Not that my approach is the correct one for everybody—it is not. If it were, everybody in the United States would adopt the book. But I wrote it with both teachers and students in mind. I wrote it as a model for teachers to teach with, and for learning to teach with authentic materials. I felt that I had provided authentic materials. Each of the chapter openers, for example, is followed by an analysis section. Why couldn't the teachers, for example, go and get an authentic text and follow the same format as we did, and in a sense make up their own learning units to supplement the textbook? Or if they didn't like one of our readings, they could find their own reading and plug it in with their own activities. This is what I mean about teachers learning from the textbook and guiding the book, not the book guiding the teachers.

W: We couldn't have this interview without mentioning grammar, right?

D: No, we have to mention grammar.

W: I like two terms you introduced today, *lexical grammar* and *reading grammar*. They are very useful, especially reading grammar as a kind of passive grammar to which students can be exposed to the degree to which they want to be. The notion of lexical grammar is also very useful for learners. As I conducted my studies of the Polish language, I noticed that there are many deviations from the rules. So instead of focusing on the rules and deviations, it's better to focus on the lexical aspect of grammar. It works very well. And what is a rule? It is an abstract statement, just an additional obstacle for the student to memorize .

D: This comes partly from personal experience. Lexical grammar is a term that is in the literature, but it comes from experience. My experience has been with Italian; that is the language that I experiment a lot with. It is the language where I don't know all the grammar. So, it is a fun language for me to experiment with. Frequently, if I am venturing into a new area where I don't know how to say something, if somebody gives me the term, the piece of grammar that I need to carry out the language task, then that is all I need. That grammar is not systematized at all; it is almost like lexical grammar. It does belong to a bigger system, but it is just a piece of grammar that I need to complete my task. There are certain things that we have looked at over many years, things that we have considered as grammar which are not grammar. I have seen textbooks printed 10 or 15 years ago that say that numbers are part of grammar. Well, numbers are not grammar at all, they are vocabulary and lexical bits. There are phrases that we use constantly in the language, almost like gambits, almost like strategies.

W: Or idioms.

D: Yes, or idiomatic expressions and things that are not really grammar, but if the students are given them as lexical items, rather than grammar, then they are apt to use them more correctly and to learn them more easily.

W: I will tell you about my experience with grammar. For years here at DLI, when I was teaching Polish, instructors were drilling students for weeks with declension of numbers. The same thing was done in Czech and Russian. It was only after I read an article on the use of numbers by native speakers that I realized a lot of that effort was wasted. According to the research, native Slavic speakers avoid declension of numbers. They use the nominative, even if they have to go to the effort of restructuring the sentence.

D: So, in other words, it behooves students, if they are going to learn anything, to learn the nominative. German has a similar thing with adjective endings. If you could see what students go through: Sometimes on tests they write out the charts on the back of the test to make sure they have them in mind and are able to do it. If you use a few rules, if you say for example that you use *-en* 75 percent of the time as an adjective ending, it may help. That already alleviates worrying about *-e* or *-er* or *-es*, or whatever those endings that are not used so frequently might be.

W: You may also observe that frequent linguistic expressions are not adequately dealt with in a typical textbook. Every native speaker knows that certain words go together; for example, the phrase *to make a statement*: *make* and *statement* go together.

D: In German you have lots of these. They are called *Nominalverbindungen* or they are sometimes called *feste Verbindungen* because they are never separated. In German you can always say, *Hilfe . . . leisten* and it will always do. If I say to any native speaker, *Können Sie mir heute abend Hilfe . . .* they will automatically complete it with *leisten*. *Er hat das Wort ergriffen*. *Wort* and *ergreifen* always go together.

W: You said in your workshop, "It is a pleasure to come to DLI, where teachers understand what language functions are." As a DLI employee, I thought that was very flattering. How do we compare with other institutions, as faculty?

D: I do workshops all over the country, so I come into contact with lots of different teachers. And I find that where DLI is struggling with content-based instruction—"At what level should we do content-based instruction?"—and all these questions, there are still many areas of the country out there where teachers are struggling to teach toward function rather than toward grammar. DLI is way beyond that. At DLI you can talk about proficiency levels very easily and teachers will know the exact characteristics of a novice- or advanced-level speaker. This awareness doesn't exist in the rest of the country. There are teachers who are more knowledgeable about it and teachers who are less knowledgeable. There are teachers who still do not know what it means to teach in a proficiency-oriented manner, or who never heard the term content-based instruction. Although that is a newer term, we know it has been around for many years in different places and has been used in different ways. It is nice to come into an audience where I can make many assumptions about what teachers already know and where I do not have to start by defining terminology. What was very fun in the workshop was to try to come to a definition of content-based instruction and the role of grammar, because we all have different ideas as to what it is.

W: You've been coming to DLI for a number of years now; could you comment on your perception of the school?

D: What is most obvious to me is that the in-service education that has been going on at DLI has really been paying off. The last time that I was here was a number of years ago. This time in the workshops there has been a quantum leap in motivation, even though I know DLI is going through some very bad cuts now and morale is down because of this, but in terms of knowledge about teaching and teaching practices and reading about things, instructors would come up to me after the workshop and say, "I read an article by this person and this person said such and such, what do you think about this, Bob?" The DLI faculty members are well informed about the teaching profession.

W: Could you focus on your own career for a moment and tell DLI readers about it? Although you are still in the midst of it, what do you feel are the strong points of your career? Looking back, which things would you do differently now, and what would you do the same way?

D: I think I can at least begin an answer to that, since I am still in mid-career and I am actually making a little bit of a career change this year. I am not sure where my career is going anymore; I thought I was sure at one time, I have always been a goal setter, I have always set certain quantifiable goals: I wanted to achieve such and such. I think one of my strong points is that I not only see my strengths but I also see my weaknesses and recognize my limitations. I am the type of person who can take the research and can look at that abstract stuff and say, "I know how to put this into practice in the classroom." I can look at what other people write and I can say, "I know how to take this activity and twist it a little bit and change it to make it fit my needs and the needs of my students." I think that is a real strong point, that is the way I see my role; I have always been a translator of methodology and a translator of research into practice. I started out as a Ph.D in literature, but I soon found out that I had a very big interest in the classroom and in how students actually learn language. I was interested in doing research in second language acquisition, interested in the results of the research and also in experimenting, mostly based on hunches, because in a sense, if you have been teaching for a long time, if you have read a lot of things, you can use those as the basis; they build your experiential base, which allows you to take risks in the classroom. That is why I have always said to teachers, "We want students to take risks." Teachers need to take risks, they need to experiment in the classroom. Now, having said all that, where am I going in my career? I cannot say for certain. I want to do this: I want to work in the area of textbook writing and publishing because I feel by doing that, I can reach a broader audience of students and teachers, because I will be working in more languages. I am not known specifically for working in German. I am known for doing workshops and articles across languages, so I am known for foreign language education, and specifically for German education. If I look back, try to think of something that I would do differently—sometimes when I've accepted many, many workshops, I said to myself, "I wish I hadn't accepted so many," but it is hard not to accept. There are many teachers out there who need to be motivated, and I think I have a talent for doing this. I can be a motivational speaker—I refer to the colleague who said, "It's not just what you say, it's how you say it." Teachers go away from my workshops and they feel energized. I hate to use this word but they do come to me and they say, "I was inspired by this." If I can touch teachers in that particular way, and that is what I have been doing over the past years, then I wouldn't change anything. I know people say, "I wouldn't change a thing about my life." Certainly I have made mistakes in my career and I have made mistakes in my life, but they have been minor kinds of things because I have always attained the major goals. The minor ones I can be flexible about, I can forget about those, because in the long run they don't amount to a hill of beans.

W: Thank you very much for sharing your thoughts with the readers of *Dialog on Language Instruction.*

D: You have conducted a wonderful interview, Lidia. Your questions were so salient and so good; you know, we could have done two hours just on grammar alone, but I'm glad that we didn't. Thank you.

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Imagination in Second Language Acquisition *

James J. Asher
San Jose State University

Here is a string of symbols without meaning to an English speaker: *Hutilkitaabalataula.* But to 100 million people in the world, that was a sentence communicating this message: Put the book on the table.

To the celebrated linguist, Noam Chomsky, what makes "*Hutilkitaabalataula*" a sentence to some people and a non-sentence to others is the most fascinating of all riddles because if we can discover what makes a sentence a sentence, we will have solved the mystery of human language. One piece of this puzzle has to do with imagination. Without imagination, there would be no language.

Here is how I think it works: Any language has the capacity to generate an infinite number of sentences. The key word is "infinite." The human mind seems to have no understanding about the concept of infinity. For example, in the set of all numbers we can picture the first number in the series as "1," but what is the last number? Even the notion that there is a "last" number feels strange because of the contradiction that if a "last" number exists, the series is not infinite. But how can there not be a last number? Every event in our experience has a beginning and an end. Then, to complicate the puzzle, no one knows whether that "last" number (if it exists) is odd or even.

Language is analogous to the set of all numbers. There is no "last" sentence, and, as another interesting twist, there is no "first" sentence. There are just sentences.

The mystery is this: How can children or adults in any culture sample different sentences in a target language and understand the multiple patterns from which sentences are created? The key word is "patterns." Notice that each person does not have to sample the identical sentences in a fixed sequence from the population of sentences, but all, after sufficient sampling, discern the identical patterns from which all sentences are created in a target language. I suggest that discerning the patterns is an imaginary process.

In the sampling of sentences, patterns become transparent. But how? I believe the Total Physical Response approach gives some insight into how this works.

Consider this example:

Hut il kitaab a la taula.	Put the book on the table.
Hut il warah a la taula.	Put the paper on the table.
Hut il suhaan a la taula.	Put the dish on the table.
Imshee al kursi.	Walk to the chair.
Imshee al taula.	Walk to the table.
Imshee al baab.	Walk to the door.

If you act out those sentences upon hearing them from a native speaker who models the action with you, you will then be able to understand dozens of novel sentences, ones you have never heard before, such as:

Hut il kursi a la taula.
Hut il kitaab a la kursi.
Hut il warah a la kitaab.
Hut il taula a la suhaan.
Imshee al baab wa hut il baab al kursi.

Incidentally, you will also instantly understand that the last sentence was "nonsensical" even though it is a legitimate sentence in the target language. (The sentence was: Walk to the door and put the door on the chair.) Notice that with an input of only six sentences, crucial patterns become transparent so that non-existent sentences, never heard before, are also understood. In fact, as Garcia (1993) has pointed out, ten sentences with ten different elements in each sentence can be rearranged into more than three million patterns, many of which are legitimate sentences in the target language. With only a small input, we achieve a gigabyte of output.

The learner can detect what is and what is not a legitimate sentence. Clearly, the secret of language acquisition is in pattern detection.

Patterns, Patterns, Patterns: What is a Pattern?

Patterns do not exist, since we cannot point to them, touch them, see them, hear them or feel them. We cannot use our senses to detect a pattern, since it is more than the sum of its parts. For example, there is no such thing as a phoneme. It is non-existent if you attempt to find it in some physical measurement such as a voice recognition device that converts sound waves into a moving pen that draws on paper revolving on a drum. The phoneme, which is the smallest change in sound that produces a change in meaning, is easily illustrated with pairs of words such as: *ball* and *hall* or *band* and *hand* or *sand* and *land.*

If you examine *ball* and *hall* on the voice recorder, you will not discover any reliable physical evidence showing when the curves made by your voice shifted from *ball* to *hall*. The phoneme seems to be a product of our imagination. We create a change in a pattern from *ball* to *hall* that has no corresponding physical imprint. An analogy would be a table. There is no such thing as a "table." No one has ever seen a table. We have seen specific examples from which we seem to abstract the concept of table. This suggests that all abstractions are products of imagination since they do not exist in the real world.

As another illustration, if someone who is non-mechanical has a problem starting the car and lifts the hood, there is nothing to be seen. The person has no concepts or abstractions which allow one to "see" what is causing the car not to start. All patterns are invisible to this individual. In looking under the hood, all one sees is a chaotic-looking collection of wires, tubes, and other mechanical devices, but what do they mean? Without patterns in the imagination, there is no meaning.

Gestalt psychologists used the concept of pattern to explain the process of learning. The instant one perceives the pattern, according to the Gestaltists, learning is complete. Compare the Gestalt approach with that of the Stimulus-Response learning theorists, who dominate educational psychology with the picture of learning as an incremental process in which one associates elements until they bond together in memory after many, many exposures. Learning, to the S-R psychologists, is a slow, step-by-step procedure that is complete only after one has been exposed to the input for many trials.

Recent discoveries in brain research allow us to sort out the controversy in learning theories that occupied the attention of researchers for 80 years. For example, experimental evidence suggests that, indeed, as clinicians such as Broca believed more than 100 years ago from observations of brain-damaged patients, each hemisphere of the brain seems to have a different function.

The right brain (for right-handed people) is a pattern detector. It sorts through incoming sensory data, searching for patterns much like the exciting new research in astronomy that slowly traverses the sky with a huge electronic ear that scans millions of random radio signals coming in from space, looking for patterns which would reveal the existence of intelligent life on other planets. Incidentally, any radio signal that is non-random suggests a transmission from an intelligent source.

The right brain can detect a pattern in one exposure and if it chooses, hold the pattern in memory indefinitely without editing. This is the principle that explains the extraordinary skill of mnemonic experts who can be introduced to 500 people in an audience and recall the first and last name of each individual. When the memory experts are first introduced to an individual, they create in their imagination a pattern, usually a bizarre pattern, that contains a picture of the person and the first and last names.

For example, if the person's name is John Smith, the memory whiz may instantly create in imagination a picture of the individual with a long, black beard and old-fashioned clothing, sitting on the "john." The next time they see John Smith, the picture flashes again on the cognitive screen suggesting the first name of "John" and then the beard and clothing suggest a box of Smith Brothers Cough Drops, and hence the last name of "Smith." Since the right brain does no editing, it will accept any pattern no matter how crazy or outrageous. In fact, the more the pattern deviates from reality, the faster it can be retrieved. As an illustration, the imaginary picture could have been a gigantic box of Smith Brothers Cough Drops with each of the brothers sitting on a "john." (Incidentally, the next time you see these cough drops in a store, I predict that you will see a picture of each brother sitting on a "john" and you will then remember reading this article.)

The left brain, for contrast, is the editor. Its specialized function is to find the flaws. Its job is to find fault—to detect imperfections—to gather evidence that an idea will not work. Its mission is a reality test of novel ideas to insure that we will not be harmed or deceived. It is dedicated to keeping us safe and sane. It is on automatic so that anything new, novel, or unfamiliar is instantly filtered through the flaw detector of the left brain

How the Brain Guides Learning

Of course, both the Gestaltists and the S-R Theorists were on target. Both were accurate in their models of learning. The only difference was that the Gestaltists were looking at learning from the perspective of the right brain and the S-R researchers were focused upon learning when it is processed through the left brain. Here is how it works: If information is presented in a dramatic pattern with motion, learning can take place on the first exposure, with long-term retention. The reason, of course, is that the pattern is input to the right hemisphere of the brain. A classic example is the metaphor.

Any effective teacher, preacher, or politician will continually switch from the left to the right brain with metaphor. Former President Ronald Reagan was a master at brainswitching using metaphors such as this to explain the national debt: It is difficult to determine the difference between a million dollars and a trillion dollars, but picture this in your imagination—if I was holding a stack of 1,000-dollar bills in this hand, I would be a millionaire if the stack was six inches high. If I had 1,000-dollar bills in this hand, I would be a trillionaire if the stack was 67 miles high.

Another contemporary master of brainswitching is Ross Perot, who used this simile: The tax code is like an inner tube with a thousand patches.

Brainswitching: The Secret of Zero Stress, Long-Term Retention, and First Trial Learning

My hypothesis is that no genuine learning can happen until there is a brainswitch from the left to the right brain. "Genuine" means that the learning happens on the first exposure with zero stress and long-term retention.

Many language instructors have the illusion that left brain learning strategies are effective. Examples are pronunciation exercises, dialogue memorizations, pattern drills, and grammar explanations. The evidence shows that only 4 percent of those who attempt a second language with a left brain "teaching people to talk" approach, become fluent (Asher, 1993). Those few who are successful with left brain input often become language teachers themselves who are baffled that others cannot follow in their academic footsteps. "After all, I did it; why can't you do it?"

I believe that the 4 percent who threaded their way through traditional language courses for 4, 5, or 6 years succeeded because, as individuals, without teacher assistance, they were able automatically to switch from the left to the right brain. This insight came from a colleague who acquired a second language in school and went on to become the head of the modern language department in a major university. "I'm curious to know how you did it," I said to him.

His explanation was that doing "listen and repeat after me" exercises was not "work" for him. It was play. He enjoyed trying to make the sounds (probably because he was immediately successful). He did not perceive the activity as a threat. Also, as he drove to or from class, he enjoyed creating conversations in the target language with an imaginary friend. The boundary lines of the classroom activity were not from bell-ring to bell-ring, but continued as an intrinsically pleasurable event outside of class periods. An exciting thesis for a research project would be to interview others who acquired a second language exclusively in school, to discover how crucial brainswitching was to their success.

Brainswitching: Most of Us Need the Instructor's Help

The 4 percent of the student population who are immediately successful in traditional language classes have "high aptitude" for second language learning. Aptitude, in this context, suggests two components: First, they are recognized by the instructor as "good language students" meaning they have the talent (unearned skill) to reproduce utterances in the target language with fidelity. The second component is that they "play" with the target language on their own time, which suggests a self-initiated brainswitch from left to right, such as creating a conversation with an imaginary friend.

However, 96 percent of the student population will not enjoy immediate success in exercises such as "Listen and repeat after me!" There will be a normal bell-shaped curve with 4 percent able to mimic the instructor in an almost perfect match, and everyone else deviating from perfection across the normal curve in a wide scatter. Hence, the great bulk of students will "study" and "work" only within the confines of each class meeting. There is no incentive (such as instructor recognition) to continue the activity outside the boundary lines of the class sessions.

Therefore, if we want most of the students to continue with a long-range commitment that keeps them going from level to level, to fluency, then the instructor must skillfully and smoothly move the students back and forth from the right to the left brain. My Total Physical Response (known internationally as TPR) is one of the most powerful brainswitching techniques.

How to Do It: Start with Comprehension, Comprehension, Comprehension

Notice that in the traditional language classroom, students start with production, followed by comprehension. Production is the star, with comprehension the bit player who appears fleetingly on stage in the milliseconds after a question is asked. Comprehension has such a minor role, it receives no screen credits.

TPR reverses the sequence, with comprehension as the star of the drama and production as the supporting player because it appears later on stage—much later, perhaps after 10 to 20 hours of comprehension exercises.

Our premise is that, for almost all students, talking in the target language cannot be achieved directly by listening to the instructor and repeating stage utterances.

Where to Find a Blueprint to Follow

For a detailed road map showing the latest research on the right and left brain along with practical applications to motivation, learning, problem solving, work, play, counseling, and more, I refer you to my book, *Brainswitching*. Then, to apply brainswitching to second language acquisition, these two books will guide you step-by-step for successful results:

Learning Another Language Through Actions (newly expanded 4th edition)

Ramiro Garcia's *Instructor's Notebook: How to Apply TPR for Best Results.*

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Author

JAMES J. ASHER, Professor, Psychology Department, San Jose State University, San Jose, CA 95192. Specializations: statistics, research design, second language acquisition.

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An Integrated Arabic Basic Course

Michel Nicola
School of Middle East Languages A

Considerable improvement has recently taken place in the quality of training and the caliber of graduates in the DLI Basic Arabic Course, yet some problems remain: (a) A survey indicates that graduates who work in the field use spoken Arabic (SA) about twice as much as written formal Arabic (FA, often referred to as Modern Standard Arabic, or MSA), and many of them use more than one variety of SA, yet the training focuses almost exclusively on FA; (b) other surveys show that becoming able to converse with Arabs in their native language is a main source of learner motivation, yet one cannot hold such conversations in FA; and (c) English translation is widely used in teaching throughout the course. To deal with these problems, it is proposed to start the course with two varieties of SA along with FA, to use SA for speaking throughout the course, and to adopt better-defined classroom procedures which do not include translation. Possible objections are examined and found to be based mainly on a tacit assumption that traditional pedagogies must be used, and on the untenable view that Arabic consists of a dozen different languages rather than one. A specific procedure for the practical implementation of the proposal is described and shown not to complicate administrative tasks.

A successful language course (or any other type of course) meets two requirements: It satisfies the learners' needs and it motivates them. The DLI Arabic Basic Course is discussed below on the basis of these requirements. The discussion should apply to any Arabic basic course for non-native speakers.

It is found that while the Arabic program has recently achieved some remarkable successes, it still suffers from failure to meet student needs for spoken Arabic. This failure is caused by student demotivation due in part to the way spoken Arabic is introduced; and by instructional procedures that rely too much on English translation.

Students' needs have been assessed by interviews with graduates who have worked in the field. Motivation has been gauged by a questionnaire filled out by a sample of DLI students and by a published survey conducted by Belknap (1987) of students in Arabic programs in the United States and Canada. Reliance on English translation in instruction is indicated by the author's personal involvement in teaching the course over many years and by an examination of the teaching materials used.

In this article, the language situation in the Arab world and the development of the DLI Arabic program during the past 10 years are first reviewed briefly. The results of the interviews and questionnaires are then given, after which the three problems of need, motivation, and the use of translation are stated briefly. A proposal is then offered to deal with these problems, possible objections are discussed, and rebuttals are given. Finally, a specific practical procedure for implementation is described in detail.

The Language Situation in the Arab World

The language called Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is understood everywhere in the Arab world and used in nearly all writing and in formal oral discourse (newscasts, speechmaking, etc.). But it is not used for informal conversation anywhere, nor is it anywhere the native language which a child acquires at home. This makes the nomenclature "standard" somewhat misleading; students who have learned MSA discover that they cannot use it to communicate with Arabs in their own standard language.[1] We therefore refer to it below as FA (formal or *Fusha* Arabic).

It is well known that there are several varieties of spoken Arabic (SA), each of which is used in a linguistic area comprising one or more Arab countries. Egyptian SA, for example, is different from the Levantine SA of Syria, Lebanon, and Jordan. Despite these differences, we speak of one Arabic language for two reasons. First, an Arab whose native tongue is of one variety will pick up any other variety and become functional in it in a matter of days or weeks; this would not be the case if each variety were a different language. Second, a look at the 100 most common words in FA listed by Abdo (1979) reveals the following:

1. Sixty of the 100 words are identical in FA and all SAs. As in any language, words are considered identical if they are written identically even though they may be pronounced differently by different speakers.

2. Of the remaining 40 words, 25 are used in both FA and SA, but the SAs also use different equivalents for each of the 25 words.

3. The remaining 15 words are seldom used in SA. Of these 15,

only two have different equivalents in different SAs; the remaining 13 SA words are used in all or most SAs.

4. The ratio of 15 words not used in SA to 85 used diminishes with less common words. For the 900th to the 1,000th word the ratio is 5 to 95.[2]

The DLI Arabic Program

Until about 1990, the Arabic Basic Course consisted of a grammar-oriented audiolingual course that lasted 47 weeks. After finishing it, some students went on to take a 16-week course in one variety of SA. Most students achieved proficiency levels of 1 or 1+ on the ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) scale in all three skills (listening, reading, and speaking). In the early '80s, a level 2 performance in any skill was a rare occurrence. In 1986 the course was supplemented with authentic materials taken from outside sources or prepared by the teachers, which no doubt contributed to the subsequent increase in the rate of success in meeting the DLI graduation requirements (2 in listening and 2 in either reading or speaking) from 6 percent in 1985 to about 25 percent in 1989 (Nicola, 1990).

In 1990 the New Arabic Basic Course (NABC) was instituted; it departed from the old ABC in several respects:

1. The duration was extended to 63 weeks, which included 120 hours of "flavoring" with a variety of SA. The 16-week dialect courses were abolished.[3] The objective of this flavoring was for the student to acquire the ability to comprehend spoken Arabic but not to speak it; in fact, students were advised not to use SA on their DLPT speaking exams because some examiners do not accept it as correct Arabic.

2. A new commercially produced course was adopted, called the Gulf to the Ocean, or GO.[4] It uses interactive video and focuses on content rather than structure. Its organization appears to be a combination of notional/functional, situational, and thematic frameworks. The seven units include such topics as introductions and courtesies, talking about the past, accidents, business negotiations, love, and marriage. This covers roughly the first 24 weeks. DLI's course development division has augmented it with material requiring 15 more weeks of study. The old grammar-oriented course continued to be taught side by side with GO, but in diminished form, and has now been discontinued.

3. During the remainder of the 63 weeks, authentic materials from newspapers, magazines, books, and broadcasts are used both to develop listening and reading proficiencies and to meet the "final learning objectives" (FLOs) (CTSRep, Oct. 1992). These include

transcriptions, translations, gists, and identifying particular points in a text. The material taken from newspapers and magazines has been collected in four volumes for reading and three for listening and is referred to as AAIM (Arabic Authentic Interactive Material).

With the introduction of NABC the rate of success in meeting the DLI graduation requirements jumped from 24 percent to about 65 percent.

Results of the Interviews

A survey was made to find out what type of Arabic language training students need in order to perform effectively in the field. The sample consisted of 8 of the 11 graduates of the basic course who had acquired field experience and who were on campus at that time.[5] They were asked to estimate the time they spent using SA and FA.

The responses are shown in *Table 1*. Column 2 shows the number of years each interviewee worked in the field; column 3 shows the skills used (L for listening , R for reading, and S for speaking) with estimates of the proportion of the time each was used; and columns 4 and 5 show estimates of the proportions of FA and SA that were used in each skill. Columns 6 through 10 show the number of years in the field in which each interviewee used FA and SA, and in what skill. For example, Student Number 1 spent 4 years in the field, used the listening skill only, and estimated that FA and SA were used equally, each 50 percent of the time. Thus "2 years" appears in each of the columns headed L(SA) and L(FA) [listening in SA and listening in FA], and "zero" in the columns S(SA) and R(FA) [speaking in SA and reading in FA]. In two cases—Students Numbers 5 and 6—no precise estimates of the ratio of FA to SA were given; a rough number was picked: .45 to .55 for number 5 and 1.75 to 2 for number 6.[6]

In order to assess whether interviewees could reliably identify FA and SA, each was asked to give samples of FA and SA s/he had heard, and where no samples could be recalled, the researcher furnished samples and asked the interviewee to tell whether they were FA or SA. All interviewees were clear about the difference between SA and FA. Three more people were interviewed, two of whom declined to give the information needed for columns 3, 4, and 5, and one who had no training in SA and was unable to distinguish between FA and SA samples given to him. The responses of these three have therefore not been included in the table. On the other hand, three of the eight listed below indicated that they had listened to more than one variety of SA.

TABLE 1

Relative Use of SA and FA by Personnel in the Field

NO.	YRS IN FIELD	SKILLS USED	% FA	% SA	L(SA)	L(FA)	S(SA)	R(FA)
1	4	L	50	50	2	2	0	0
2	10	L	10	90	9	1	0	0
3	3.5	L	0	100	3.5	0	0	0
4	7	L(2/3) R(1/3)	<10 100	>90 0	4.20	0.47	0	2.33
5	2	L(1/2) R(1/2)	SA>FA 100	SA>FA 0	0.55	0.45	0	1
6	5	L(3/4) R(1/4)	SA>FA 100	SA>FA 0	2	1.75	0	1.25
7	4	S(3/4) R(1/4)	0 100	100 0	0	0	3	1
8	5	L	0	100	5	0	0	0
TOT.	40.5				26.25	5.67	3	5.58

Total SA = 26.25 + 3 = 29.25 person-yrs.
Total FA = 5.67 + 5.58 = 11.25 person-yrs.

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Table 2 shows the results of the following question asked of 38 students in a typical DLI Arabic class in their sixth week:

> What would you like to be able to do with the language after you have completed your training in it?
>
> Please put "1" after the activity you would most like to be able to do, "2" after your next preference, and so on.
>
> A. converse with native Arabs in their own language
> B. read Arabic literature, history, etc.
> C. read newspapers and magazines
> D. listen to newscasts
> E. watch movies and TV programs
> F. write
> G. other (specify)

TABLE 2
What Students Would Like to Be Able to Do with Arabic

PRIORITY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CAPABILITY							
converse with Arabs	28	5	2	3	0	0	0
read literature, history	3	8	6	8	9	4	0
read newspapers	2	18	8	7	2	1	0
listen to newscasts	6	8	13	5	5	1	0
watch movies and TV	1	2	4	4	10	15	2
write	1	4	5	9	8	10	1
other	1	0	0	0	0	0	4

Summary of the Problems

The problem of using FA versus SA becomes clear from the totals in *Table 1*, which indicate that SA was used by personnel in the field about three times as much as FA (29.25 versus 11.25 person-years).

The problem of motivation can be seen in *Table 2*, which shows that DLI students, like students of Arabic elsewhere in the country (Belknap, 1987), are motivated most by the prospect of being able to converse with Arabs in their own language. Since Arabs do not converse in FA, student motivation inevitably suffers from neglect of SA in favor of FA.

The problem of the use of English in the classroom (and elsewhere) occurs not only in the first parts of the course but also in the AAIM material used in the final semester, where questions and tasks are given in English and the answers are expected to be in English. The method in the GO course assumes the exclusive use of Arabic, which was indeed attempted during the trial runs before the course was adopted. The report on these trial runs (Rowland & Burns, 1985) points to considerable difficulties with this approach in the DLI context. The detailed directions given by the authors for achieving this goal are somewhat nebulous; what is needed is a simple, easy-to-use classroom procedure that can achieve the actual banning of English from Day One. This is of considerable importance, since the teachers are the only source of native spoken language, and this resource must not be wasted. Every English word spoken by a teacher to a student is one less word spoken in the target language.

The General Proposal

This proposal is intended for the initial part of the course, the first 6 to 8 weeks. The rest of the course proceeds as it does now, but with much less translation and with the use of SA rather than FA for speaking. The proposal is in two parts:

First, start with SA and use it for speaking throughout the course. FA is introduced in the first or second week and used for reading and listening comprehension. The bulk of the effort in the 63 weeks continues to go to FA, not SA.

Second, use well-defined classroom procedures that do not include translation.

Beginning with SA rather than FA would approximate the way Arabs acquire and use their language. They acquire SA at home and speak it in all informal communications, and study FA in school and pick it up from broadcasts and books. This approach would give students maximum exposure to what they need and what motivates them most. They would become immediately able to recognize and respond to the most common forms of SA, which would be for the majority an extremely valuable skill. Language students get a considerable boost if after only a few weeks of study they are able to follow simple authentic conversations between natives and even to participate in them.

The acquisition of SA skills would not be at the expense of the other skills. On the contrary, knowledge of SA can be an immense help in developing listening comprehension of FA, as can be seen from the fact that nearly all illiterate Arabs are perfectly capable of comprehending FA when they hear it on the radio or TV, despite their lack of schooling in it.

The Objections

We examine four main objections to this proposal:

1. There are at least a dozen varieties of SA. Which one should be used?

2. Teaching SA along with FA hopelessly confuses the learner. Each variety of Arabic alone is difficult enough; it would be disastrous to hit the learner with two or more simultaneously.

3. The SAs have no definite grammars. How can they be taught?

4. A learner who has a good command of FA can easily acquire any desired variety of SA, so why change the current practice?

The Rebuttals

These objections are based on questionable assumptions about the nature of the Arabic language and how it is to be taught:

1. There may be a dozen or more varieties of SA, but not a dozen different languages. As al-Batal (1992, p. 298) puts it, his approach to teaching Arabic ". . . does not treat these varieties of Arabic as discrete and separate entities (as has been the case with most other approaches) but as *components of one integrated linguistic system*" (emphasis added). The statistics given in this article—as well as the statistics in Younes (1992), who found that in his introductory course 95.6 percent of the 1,227 words used are used in both SA and FA—indicate that it is indeed possible to teach Arabic as an integrated linguistic system.

One way to resolve the question of which SA to use is by choosing ESA (Educated Spoken Arabic), a variety used by Arab speakers of different SAs to communicate with each other. It is also called Formal Spoken Arabic (FSA), and is used for most spoken Arabic training at the Foreign Service Institute (Ryding, 1990). This approach was advocated in the late '80s by the author (Nicola, 1988), but it now appears that the choice of the particular SA is not so momentous. If Arabic were compared to a city, no matter which entrance one chose for getting into it, one would end up in the same city. The natural choice is the teacher's native SA, but in the end one will be acquiring the same Arabic language as someone else who started with a different SA.

2. When we see it this way, the idea of starting Arabic with one SA, or even two, will not seem daunting. The different versions do not clash with but support one another, giving the student a broader knowledge of the integrated linguistic system. The general apprehension about confusing the learner is not supported, considering that many children grow up bilingual or even trilingual without either being confused or having to expend Herculean effort. If children are not confused by two or three different languages they acquire simultaneously, why do we assume that our adult learners are confused by two or three variations of the same language?[7] Children perform such feats because they do not learn the languages, but rather acquire them effortlessly. The reliance on acquisition rather than learning is the basis of modern language pedagogy (see Krashen, 1982). Thus, whether we have an insurmountable problem in teaching different varieties of Arabic simultaneously depends on whether our pedagogy is still bound by traditional philosophies, methods, and practices.

It is now widely recognized that the most effective way to develop proficiency is not by a linear process of covering the language piecemeal, mastering every lesson before moving on to the next, but by a spiral approach. In listening comprehension, for example, the learner is expected at first to recognize general features of what is heard, and later to comprehend more and more details as the same ground is covered again. This is precisely the way listening comprehension develops in a child. Adults are different from children in many important ways, yet their road to proficiency is the same.

In teaching for proficiency by a spiral approach, even if FA is used alone, one must often present two or three different variations of a word or expression simultaneously. For example, in first learning to count, the student hears both the nominative and accusative forms before the grammatical justification can be presented.[8] Experience in teaching FA with this approach shows that such variations are tolerated; the student understands and accepts that on first hearing something in the language, excessive analysis is futile. The best strategy for listening comprehension, and to a certain extent for reading, is to rely more on context and less on knowledge of separate words and their accurate pronunciation and writing. Now, if variations within FA are well tolerated, why do we assume that those between FA and SA will not be?

3. Variations are not well tolerated if one is using the linear, piecemeal method. Many of them are not considered "variations" but "mistakes." Thus, the problem is not so much something in the

language (its diglossia, inherent difficulty, etc.) but in the way of teaching it. This way of teaching is also the cause of resistance by some to the teaching of any SA on the grounds that the SAs have no grammars. This, of course, is not true, but it should not make any difference even if it were true.[9] A complete, definitive grammar is indispensable only for the linear method. In a spiral approach, grammar is seen as a set of patterns which ideally the learner discovers for himself and then uses as help in comprehension and expression, not as holy writ which must be scrupulously observed from the start. The time for detailed grammar and its often trifling minutiae is after the learner has reached a high level of proficiency in using the language. Learners using a spiral approach will not be disconcerted when they discover that certain SA rules, contrary to those of FA, are not set in concrete, and that there are different acceptable ways of expression.

4. It is probably true that the learner who has a good command of FA can easily acquire any desired SA variety, but it is also true that the learner who has a good command of one SA can easily acquire FA and any other SA. There is abundant empirical evidence for the latter statement. Students of Arab parents who picked up a native SA at home have a very easy time with FA.[10] Native speakers of one SA who move to a region where a different SA variety is spoken have little problem adapting to the new language situation even when they are illiterate and have not studied FA.

In any foreign language, the most accessible parts for beginners are informal everyday conversations, which in Arabic are in SA, not FA. It is said that some Arab intellectuals have tried to raise their children speaking FA instead of SA, but there is no record of success in this. FA does not appear to be suitable for beginners, native or non-native.[11] To start with it is nearly like starting mountain climbing by attempting to scale Everest, with the rationale that one who has done so will find the lesser peaks easy!

The Implementation

At the end of the initial 6 to 8 week period, the student should be able to: (a) comprehend and participate in simple conversational Arabic; (b) read and write at least half of what s/he is able to comprehend when listening; and (c) start the GO course and proceed without the use of translation.

The implementation of the proposal could be as follows:

1. Each team starts with two varieties of SA (SA1 and SA2) and covers simultaneously the same material in both. For example, SA1 may be Egyptian and SA2 Syrian if the team consists predominantly of Egyptian and Syrian instructors. The same material, i.e., vocabulary,

phrases, stories, etc., is covered in both Egyptian and Syrian. When the students start to speak, they will naturally use both varieties. For example, they will use either the Egyptian or the Syrian form of the question "What is this?"—whichever comes readily to their minds. This should be acceptable to the teachers, who themselves would probably start doing the same when addressing students. Parts of FA are also introduced early in this period, but not as a separate language. The stock of SA1/SA2 already acquired by the student contains large parts that are also used in FA, as we have already seen. These parts are identified and used to learn the alphabet and to read and write.

Thus, no new demands are placed on the composition of the teams. At present each team has native speakers of at least two SAs. Teachers, however, will be expected to teach elementary SAs other than their own, with the help of video and audio recordings. Even though this idea runs against current conventional thinking, it is neither impossible nor difficult to realize. If many non-native speakers of Arabic teach it successfully, why is it unreasonable to expect a native Arabic teacher to teach an SA other than his/her own?

2. New teaching material is prepared for this initial period—the same material for the five or six major SAs (Egyptian, Syrian, Iraqi, Gulf, Moroccan, Yemeni). This material would consist of:

- a teacher's book containing the items (words, expressions, idioms, etc.) to be introduced in each lesson (one lesson per day of classes) along with extensive applications such as TPR (Total Physical Response) commands, simple conversations, games, and so on. The teacher's book would also include the texts of all the material on video and audio cassettes.

- a student's book containing material needed for reading and writing. This would consist of some listening material, some authentic material, questions in Arabic, maps, charts, and so on.

- a videotape of up to one full class hour for each lesson, conducted by a native teacher with other native speakers and/or advanced students.

- an audio cassette for each lesson containing exercises one hour in duration.

Each video and audio cassette tape for a lesson would be limited, with occasional exceptions, to the material of that lesson and those preceding it. This may make it difficult to prepare the desired length of tapes for lesson one, and perhaps those immediately following it. This problem can be overcome by including a lot of material in lesson one, but not expecting first-day mastery of all of it. Each subsequent lesson starts with an extensive review of the preceding ones.

3. Team members are trained in methods of conducting class without the use of English. Some variation of TPR and NA (Natural Approach) is probably the easiest and most effective approach.

Experience in the limited use of TPR/NA with several teams indicates that teachers enjoy these approaches more than traditional ones because they are simple and well-defined classroom procedures. They develop listening comprehension by means of physical actions and/or negotiation of meaning, rather than by translation. Experience with them, as well as controlled experiments (Asher, 1988), shows that they result in high retention with shorter learning times. Student "homesickness," which Rowland and Burns (1985, p. 4) described in the first trial run of the GO course, and which is observed in any class that truly tries to ban translation, would be less severe with TPR since actions serve as well as, or better than, translations for conveying meaning. Much of the material included in the GO course is difficult if not impossible to convey to beginners by means of the methods suggested by the GO authors without the use of translation.

The greatest problem with teaching by TPR/NA is the demand the method places on the energy and resourcefulness of the teacher. This problem can be ameliorated by the use of video and audio tapes. These could be used during the instruction hours, especially those later in the day, in order to reinforce and practice the material presented by the teachers earlier. They also can be used for homework and independent study.

Typical Day of Classes

First hour: TPR/NA in SA1, conducted by a teacher who is preferably, but not necessarily, a native speaker of SA1.

Second hour: Repeat for SA2. The same material is covered in SA2 and SA1.

Third hour: Viewing and participating in a videocassette session in SA1, presenting a different variation of the same lesson. In the first part of the hour students view the video; then, for those parts in which the responses are actions, the tape is played again with the picture turned off and the students perform the actions. For parts requiring verbal responses the tape is stopped after each question or task and the students are given time to perform the task. Then they compare their responses with those given on the tape.

Fourth hour: Repeat the program of the third hour for SA2.

Fifth hour: The video is used again if needed. Then the audio cassette for that lesson is heard and the tasks completed. The tape contains another variation of the lesson; thus, the student deals with the material as used in many different contexts.

Sixth hour: Repeat the program of the fifth hour for SA2.

All printed and recorded material is made available to each student, and may be perused as often as needed.

In the above pattern the two SA hours alternate. It may be found that it is better to do three hours of one SA first, then three hours of the second. Trial and error should determine the most efficacious way.

The TPR/NA activities would include counting and numbers, number dictation, and enumerative material such as days of the week and seasons of the year.

Learning to read and write would proceed from simple sentences to words to letters, and would be started the second week or earlier. The order of presentation of TPR/NA material would take into consideration what the student needs for this to be done wholly in Arabic. For example, terms like *read, write, word, letter, join, separate,* etc., would have to be introduced before the reading and writing activities. Still, the students may not be able to understand all the directions and explanations the teacher wishes to give, but much could be conveyed by extralinguistic means. Using English should be resisted. *All* grammar explanations should be deferred until the student is able to understand them in Arabic.

At the conclusion of this initial period the student would be prepared to begin GO and proceed without English. S/he would have a vocabulary of about 1,000 words in SA, most of which (more than 900) would be common with FA. Thus, in each GO dialogue or text there would be only a few new words. These could be explained in Arabic, using what the student already knows along with pictures, acting, and so on.

Unit tests would be completely in Arabic, but semester tests would retain multiple choice items in English, as at present. Translation into English would not be undertaken as a regular class activity until the second half of the third semester. It would be used for developing professional use of the language, not as a means of learning it.

Concluding Remarks

The foregoing may be considered an ideal, describing details of which only parts can be implemented. Many elements would seem unthinkable, but if we look at what has happened in the language field in the past 15 to 20 years, we see that many of yesterday's unthinkables are today's routines. Although not long ago practically all Arabic teachers followed a grammatical audiolingual approach, many now use the communicative one. The transition from viewing Arabic as a dozen or more different languages to viewing it as one integrated linguistic system is considerable, yet many teachers have already made this transition, and many will in the future. Similarly, we may see the transition from teaching FA first, then one SA if time and resources permit, to teaching two SAs and FA simultaneously; from considering it an inviolate rule that teachers teach only their own SA, not touching any other, to a situation in which this is routine practice; and in general, from our being captive to our own experiences, to breaking free to embrace a new paradigm.

Notes

1. This is not quite true. Most Arabs, including illiterates, understand FA very well, but addressing them in FA in informal situations would seem as ludicrous as using Shakespeare's language in the marketplace.

2. This means that most of the differences between FA and SA are in the highest frequency words. If an SA speaker needs a low frequency word that does not exist in SA, s/he uses the FA word.

3. They were called *dialect courses* and covered different varieties of SA.

4. This *GO* course had been used experimentally for about 5 years before 1990, mainly to supplement the basic course but also in one class in lieu of the basic course.

5. This is roughly the number of people with field experience who are found on campus at any one time. There are, of course, hundreds of Arabic students, but most are in the basic course and have not yet had field experience. For this reason, the sample had to be small.

6. These values were arbitrary, but not completely so. If someone recalled that they had used FA less than SA, the ratio of the first to the second must have been perceptibly less than 50 to 50. The figures chosen are felt to be a reasonable choice. The final result, that SA is used about three times as much as FA, would not have changed much had any other possible choice been made.

7. This is not to say that the language acquisition process is the same for adults as for children, but that it is curious to allege that adults would be confused by what does not confuse children.

8. The justification can be made in English from the start, but one of the principles that must be adhered to, if the use of English is to be minimized, is never to explain grammar until the learner is able to comprehend it in Arabic.

9. All languages have *de facto* grammars, conventional rules that are adhered to by speakers of the language. For SA, these have not yet been codified grammatically, as for FA.

10. They are able to reach levels 2 and 3 much faster than those who start their study with FA, but they probably will not have the same advantage if they try to achieve native proficiency levels.

11. Sometimes suitability is not the decisive factor. Some students of Arabic for special purposes, such as reading the *Quor'an*, may do well to start with FA and neglect the SAs altogether.

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Author

MICHEL NICOLA, Academic Specialist, School of Middle East Languages A, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93940-5006. Interests: integrating language and cultural studies.

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A Reply to Michel Nicola's "An Integrated Arabic Basic Course"

Peter D. Molan [1]
National Cryptologic School

Virtually all persons involved in teaching Arabic as a second language (TASL) are in agreement as to the need for a new generation of basic Arabic teaching materials. That the Defense Language Institute undertake to produce such a body of materials was the Arabic Curriculum Review Committee's (ACRC) first recommendation.

Most agree that such materials should employ what is commonly called the proficiency orientation. Indeed, an ad hoc body of materials is already replacing the standard audio-lingual textbooks by Abboud et al. in the academic world and Abdel Malek at DLI, as those had once replaced grammar-translation teaching tools. At DLI, *Gulf to the Ocean* and *Authentic Arabic Interactive Materials* take the proficiency orientation; in the academic world, ألكتاب الأساسي and ألعربية للحياة and a number of other textbook packages (audio and video as well as textual) are getting more frequent use. As yet, however, no single textbook utilizing the proficiency orientation has been as popular at DLI as those written by Abboud and Abdel Malek.

No proficiency-teaching tool dominates at DLI, or in academe, in part because there is widespread agreement in both academic and governmental circles that a new Arabic Basic Course (ABC) must integrate, in some way, instruction in features of what used to be thought of as dialectal Arabic, along with Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). Until now, the standard Arabic of written discourse (including the "voiced texts" of Arabic news broadcasts and other highly formal speech acts) has been the only variety of Arabic taught at the basic level; dialectal Arabic has traditionally been introduced at a more advanced stage.

Agreement on this point of integration arises from the now virtually universal conviction in TASL circles that the designations *standard* and *dialectal* misrepresent the realities of the Arab sociolinguistic situation. It is now widely recognized that diglossia in Arabic is not characterized by a sharp dichotomy between dialectal and standard versions, as traditionally believed. Rather, the terms dialect and standard are viewed as two poles of a continuum and as "components of one integrated linguistic system."[2] Hence, the shift in terminology from "dialectal/standard" to "spoken/formal" can be observed in Michel Nicola's article.

The need for the integration of spoken and formal Arabic is not well-addressed by currently available proficiency-oriented textbooks which still treat only formal Arabic. And, no consensus on how to integrate the teaching of spoken into the teaching of formal Arabic has been achieved (nor is there a consensus on how to describe that "one integrated linguistic system" to take account of the regional varieties of spoken Arabic, though El Sa'id Badawi has provided a good description of the different levels, or "registers," of the continuum from spoken to formal Arabic within a given region).[3]

Currently, three general positions on the question of integration exist. A traditionalist model (still the most widely followed, and presently in use at DLI) holds that features of spoken Arabic are to be introduced only after a solid grounding in formal Arabic has been achieved, using the proficiency orientation. A second, somewhat more advanced, approach proposes that the authentic materials used in the earliest stages of instruction be selected from sources containing vocabulary common to both spoken and formal Arabic and to allow distinct forms and structures from the spoken and formal ends of the linguistic continuum to come to the student's attention as the course progresses. The most aggressive approach advocates beginning with spoken Arabic and then progressing towards formal Arabic. The question of exactly what direction to take remains a matter of heated debate in TASL circles.

Nicola, in his article "An Integrated Arabic Basic Course," advocates the "spoken Arabic first" model, and while I agree on the principle of integration, and believe that some sort of early introduction of spoken Arabic is the direction in which the TASL field is moving, I also believe that some of Nicola's specific recommendations are based on faulty premises which may tend to vitiate his proposals in certain respects. The following comments will therefore constitute a constructive critique of Nicola's recommendations, the aim of that critique being to refine and deepen our mutual understanding of how best to achieve the common goal towards which TASL pedagogues, in both the academic and the governmental worlds, are all striving—instruction in Arabic which best equips students for the realities of Arabic.[4]

Nicola's Objections and Rebuttals to Integration

Central to Nicola's argument is his list of often-raised objections to the general proposal to begin instruction in a new ABC with spoken Arabic (and then move on to formal Arabic) and his "rebuttals" to those objections. I will treat Nicola's objections and rebuttals in inverse order as the level of complexity of the issues increases, in my view, inversely.

The Grammar of Spoken Arabic

Objection: The Spoken Arabics have no definite grammars. How can they be taught?

Rebuttal: Learners using a global approach will not be upset if they discover that "certain SA rules, contrary to those of FA, are not set in concrete" (Nicola, p. 36).

Critique: Nicola is too cautious. No serious TASL pedagogue wastes a minute on the proposition that the spoken Arabic doesn't have grammar which can be taught. Most (if not quite all) would also agree that grammar is not "holy writ which must be scrupulously observed from the start. The time for detailed grammar . . . is after the learner has reached a high level of proficiency in using the language" (Nicola, p. 36). The real problem is that the grammar of spoken Arabic does have an impact on the learner of formal Arabic, notwithstanding Nicola's assertions to the contrary in the next objection and rebuttal.

The Hopeless Confusion of the Learner

Objection: Teaching spoken Arabic (SA) with formal Arabic (FA) will hopelessly confuse the learner.

Rebuttal: "The general apprehension about confusing the learner is not supported, considering that many children grow up bilingual or even trilingual without either being confused or having to expend Herculean effort" (Nicola, p. 35).

Critique: There are other elements of Nicola's rebuttal which are less objectionable, but they too rest on the premise here stated, that the model of the dynamics of a child's language learning is appropriate to the instruction of our adult students. Nicola correctly points out that the model of a child's acquisition of language (per Krashen) "is the basis of modern language pedagogy" (Nicola, p. 35). That model, however, underlies, to a large extent, the audio-lingual approach to language teaching with its abandonment of grammatical analysis and dependency on repetition of common patterns once presumed to be the basis of a child's learning of language.

Much of the appeal of the proficiency approach, however, lies in its willingness to abandon elements of the child's language acquisition model in favor of a search for strategies applicable to adults who do expend Herculean efforts to learn a new language. The proficiency orientation, in that respect, conforms with current research into the dynamics of adult language learning , thereby undercutting the very elements of the model upon which Nicola most depends.[5]

It may often be true, as Nicola says in his rebuttal to a widely stated objection to the integration of spoken with formal Arabic instruction, that elements of "the different versions [spoken and formal Arabic] do not clash with but support one another, giving the student a broader knowledge of the integrated linguistic system" (Nicola, p. 35). But it is equally true that elements of spoken Arabic are different enough structurally to cause adult, non-native students true anguish, if not "hopeless confusion." I have not contradicted myself here; both realities apply to the spoken-formal continuum in Arabic.[6] Some of the causes for our students' pain become apparent if the question of the varieties of Arabic, the object of Nicola's first objection, is addressed from a somewhat broader perspective. Let us, therefore, turn to that issue.

A Dozen Varieties of Spoken Arabic

Objection: There are at least a dozen varieties of SA. Which one should be used?

Rebuttal: "There may be a dozen . . . varieties of SA, but not a dozen different languages. . . . These varieties [are the] components of one integrated linguistic system."

Critique: Nicola's dismissal of the significance of the varieties of spoken Arabic is too facile. He refers, in his much too brief rebuttal of the problems caused by the varieties of Arabic (Nicola, pp. 34-35), to statistics (and discussion) cited in his earlier section on "The Language Situation in the Arab World" (Nicola, pp. 28-29). In his discussion we can again see that he bases his conclusions on the model of the native-speaking child's dynamic of language acquisition. And it is here that we may again see the problems inherent in both the child model and, perhaps as importantly, in a "point-of-view problem" of native versus non-native learner.

If it is true that ". . . an Arab whose native tongue is of one variety will pick up any other variety and become functional in it in a matter of days or weeks . . ." (p. 28), it is true because of the linguistic experience of the native-speaking child learner of Arabic. It should be noted that Nicola's assertion is dependent on the definition of functional and is anecdotal. Very little research has been done, for a variety of reasons, on the mutual intelligibility of the regional varieties of spoken Arabic which might confirm (or deny) Nicola's assertion. As someone who has watched the interactions of cross-language interchange, I tend to be more cautious. Seeing an Italian and a French speaker fail to recognize the identity of ristorante and restaurant, as I have, gives one pause.

The fact that native speakers of Arabic move easily from one variety of Arabic to another, however, is true because of life experience which our adult, non-native students do not share. Syrian Arab babes-in-arms may, for example, be put down for their afternoon naps to village lullabies in distinctly Syrian Arabic; they may be awakened by an afternoon Egyptian soap opera on the TV; they may listen to the evening news in MSA with their fathers, and they may be exposed to Quor'anic recitation throughout the day. Native-speaking children are, in fact, exposed to most of the varieties of Arabic, both spoken and formal, in 260 weeks (5 years) of basic Arabic instruction before being exposed to the rigors of grammatical instruction in school. Our uniquely privileged DLI students have a mere 63 weeks, total (including at least some grammatical analysis). Such life experience of the varieties of Arabic is denied to our adult students, and a corollary to Einstein's theory of relativity may well apply: The true distance between the varieties of Arabic is determined by the amount of time spent in proximity to them.

There are undoubtedly structural similarities in vocabulary between spoken and formal Arabic, statistics which Nicola cites, which are perfectly perceptible to the native speaker, to the advanced learner, or the theoretical linguist (Nicola, pp. 28-29). The differences in pronunciation which arise from the rules of the sound systems of spoken Arabic, however, do obscure those similarities to non-natives, as do other features of morphology and syntax; and they slow students' abilities to process new language stimulae. The impact of the differences should not be facilely discounted by reference to similarities that function at a level of analysis irrelevant to our students.

The varieties of Arabic are indeed "components of one integrated linguistic system," and our students must deal with that system. But, it is an extremely complex system, and denying the problems that complexity poses for adult non-native learners does them no good.

In addition to rebutting objections to his proposal, Nicola has argued in favor of his particular approach to integrating spoken and formal Arabic in a new ABC in terms of student motivations and needs and the place that English translation plays in the current ABC. It is to those questions that I will now briefly turn.

Needs and Motivations

Nicola asserts that any successful language course must fulfill learners' needs and motivate them. He then goes on to use, as criteria for identifying students' needs (and the aspirations which motivate them), interviews with a quite small number of beginning DLI students and a handful of DLI graduates who have worked in the field. Let us break the question down into motivations, which can be handled quickly; and needs, which are more complex.

Motivating the Student to Learn

From interviews with beginning students, Nicola concludes that those students most want, from their study of Arabic at DLI, to achieve an ability to converse with Arabs (Nicola, pp. 32-33). He then—not unreasonably—extrapolates from that finding to assert that students will be best motivated to achieve the goal of learning to converse with Arabs by instructing them, especially in the first phases of the course, in spoken rather than formal Arabic.

There are two problems with Nicola's conclusions, however. In the first instance, I believe that Nicola misinterprets his own data. A further examination of his *Table 2* suggests to me (as does experience with other students and graduates) that DLI students are most interested in acquiring and evaluating information. This interpretation is substantiated, in Nicola's data listed as student priorities A through C, by similarly high student interest in reading newspapers and listening to newscasts. Those interests contrast with a markedly low interest in watching movies and TV and writing, while reading literature and history falls in a middle range of appeal. If acquiring information from newspapers and newscasts (and books) is, when taken all together, of as high interest to students as conversing with Arabs, the issue of the relationship of spoken Arabic to formal Arabic may be reversed. Certainly the argument for starting with spoken Arabic, on the grounds of interest and motivation, is damaged.

There is, of course, an even greater practical problem. While academic institutions seem to be, for better or worse, looking to student interest as a predictor of achievement, in the belief that interest is the primary determinant of motivation, DLI is not in the position to make its instruction conform to beginning students' desires, as opposed to their needs, even though seriously concerned with student motivation.[7]

I do not suppose that Nicola thinks otherwise. He does, however, posit, if only implicitly, an identity between student desires (conversing with Arabs) and DOD needs. That identity of interest, he suggests, is not currently met because of DLI's inappropriate focus on formal Arabic. I believe that he is incorrect in that regard, as we shall see as we turn to the issue of needs. If Nicola is correct, and there is indeed a discrepancy between student desires and current DLI goals, we must seek other means than changing the goals of the course to resolve the conflict and motivate DLI students, as we shall now see.

DLI and Language Learning Needs

The results of interviews with eight graduates of the basic course who have worked in the field are the basis for Nicola's contention that it is important to instruct DLI students more fully in spoken Arabic (Nicola, pp. 33-34). This is because, in response to his queries, Nicola's interviewees assert that they spent close to three times as many hours dealing with spoken Arabic as they did with formal Arabic (*Table 1*). Nicola's data, drawn from a small sample, is inconsistent with my own observations. My teaching experience and interviews with DLI graduates indicate that they have a bigger need for formal than for spoken Arabic.

It is the DOD which defines its students' needs. The DOD requires DLI to produce graduates with an ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) level 2 competence in reading and listening comprehension. It has only recently raised its requirement for the speaking component from level 1 to level 2, but even now, DOD presumes that the speaking component involves formal Arabic and fulfills a pedagogic need as much as a practical one. It requires only an introduction to the problem of dialectal Arabic. It does this because it believes that such a graduate will best serve its needs. It believes that, despite a highly dynamic and varied linguistic environment, the vast bulk of language data which DLI students are called upon to deal with, immediately after graduation, is in formal Arabic, whether written or voiced. DLI responds as it does because it is a requirements-driven service institution.

It is not up to those of us involved in evaluating DLI's Arabic curriculum to reassess DOD needs and requirements, though the ACRC has asked DOD to do so precisely because of the problem of the relationship of spoken to formal Arabic in light of today's sociolinguistic realities. Our immediate task, however, is to concern ourselves with meeting, or exceeding, current DOD requirements.

I believe that an integrated proficiency-oriented program for DLI will work best to produce the kind of graduate that the DOD requires. I believe that the active/productive skills (the writing of formal Arabic and speaking of both formal and spoken Arabic) invigorate and deepen the passive skills (the reading of and listening to formal Arabic, as well as the comprehension of spoken Arabic), and hence I agree that more emphasis on spoken Arabic is needed at DLI. But, the spoken/formal distinctions do present a real problem in Arabic. The difference between spoken and formal Arabic is measured by the very different realities of the native and non-native student of Arabic. What is a little ditch to cross for the long-legged native is a chasm for the just-beginning-to-walk non-native.

The questions then remain: To what extent are we to introduce those features of spoken Arabic which are different than their formal

Arabic counterparts, when are we to do so, and how? DLI has introduced instruction in dialectal Arabic because DOD has required it to give students at least "a flavor of" the realities of spoken Arabic, not because DLI believes that doing so enhances its ability to achieve the basic goals (level 2 proficiency in reading and listening to formal Arabic) imposed on it.

It is up to those of us who believe in giving students more spoken Arabic at an earlier stage in the course to demonstrate that doing so will help DLI achieve those goals.

An Aside: The Question of English Translation as a Pedagogical Tool

Nicola correctly points out that English continues, inappropriately, to be used in the DLI classroom even at the end of the 63-week course. The inappropriate use of English was also criticized by the members of the ACRC and in the ACRC Chairman's follow-up report. It is important to note some important constraints on our desire to banish English from the DLI classroom, however.

Nicola himself recognizes the requirements imposed on DLI from outside, as part of the mandated Final Leaning Objectives (FLOs) of the Cryptologic Training system (Nicola, p. 29).[8] Those requirements demand that DLI give students practice in English translation because it is an essential skill for DLI graduates once on the job.

Over and above such external constraints, problems remain regarding translation within our current methodology. Both the audio-lingual and the proficiency approaches to language teaching hold, properly I believe, that student comprehension of both texts and spoken discourse is best induced and tested by repeated paraphrase, by questions and answers in the target language without recourse to English translation, by techniques suggested by the concept of Total Physical Response (TPR) and by others. The proficiency approach also tips its hat to recognize students' own strategies for learning. It then turns around and denies translation as a valid strategy for learning, much to the dismay of many adult learners who, unlike children, feel deeply insecure, if not lost, if they are unable to account for, and control, every element of an utterance.

Thus far, those of us who are proponents of the proficiency orientation in Arabic have not adequately dealt with the discomfort felt by the adult learner of a second language when deprived of translation as a tool for comprehension. Repeated assurances that understanding will come if only the student will loosen up and go with the method are not adequate, and students are ingenious in finding ways to drag the translation they feel they need back into the classroom.

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And then there is the question of time. Even in a 63-week course, inducing and testing comprehension by TPR, by repeated paraphrase, and by questions and answers in the target language becomes ever more time-costly as the sophistication and complexity of the discourse under study increases. And, let us recall that we are striving for level 2 and even beyond at the end of the 63 weeks.

While we seek to avoid English, in the conviction that target language use is the best means of instruction in the long run, time constraints sometimes overwhelm us in the immediacy of the classroom, and translation is, in many ways, a time-efficient means of checking on comprehension, not to mention the explanation of complex concepts. Consequently, the realities of demands, both external and internal, are such that DLI can seek only to minimize, not banish completely, the use of English translation as a pedagogic tool even in its most rigorously proficiency-oriented classrooms. Much the same can be said of grammatical explanation (much desired by adult learners despite the assurances of audio-lingual and proficiency teachers who repeatedly assure them that they will "get it" in time). It is hoped that DOD's "Project Sibawayhi—The MSA Reference Grammar" may help in this regard.

Conclusions

Teachers who agree on the principles of the proficiency orientation (motivating students to apply their innate linguistic abilities and life experience to contextualize discourse in authentic materials such as to comprehend and thereby to intuit language practices—grammar—so as to be able to respond with appropriate speech acts and hence function effectively in the target language in real-life contexts) agree that the sociolinguistic realities of the Arab world demand that we expose our students to the varieties of spoken and formal Arabic which confront them in actuality. The question is how best to do so.

I believe that I have, in the foregoing comments, exposed some weaknesses in certain arguments in favor of the "spoken Arabic first" model. Such weaknesses must, I think, be addressed before proponents of that model proceed further. Consideration of them will impact on the nature of the materials prepared for a "spoken Arabic first" course. I do not believe, however, that the specific problems I have brought out vitiate the "spoken Arabic first" model entirely. We need more debate to clarify our ideas, and I hope that this article may further stimulate that debate.

In some respects, DLI is especially well situated to be a venue for experimentation. The number of students coming through DLI and the number of instructors available to administer a pilot program could produce statistical data on the efficacy of the competing methods of a sufficiently large order as to be significant. No American university can match the magnitude of the DLI program; experiments in the academic world will remain anecdotal rather than statistical because of the small number of students involved.

It is unlikely, however, that DLI will be able to turn itself into a laboratory for linguistic experimentation. The administrative and institutional constraints posed by its being a requirements-driven service organization will compel DLI to look to others to test the theory put forward by the advocates of integration by putting spoken Arabic first, despite the sincerity and eloquence of such exponents as Nicola. Too bad, I agree—but, that, too, is probably a reality of the world of language learning.

Notes

1. In the summer of 1991, Dr. Peter D. Molan served as Chairman of the DLI Arabic Curriculum Review.

2. Nicola, p. 34, here quoting Mahmoud al-Batal, 1992, p. 298.

3. Martin Hinds and El Said Badawi. (1986). *A dictionary of Egyptian Arabic*, pp. viii-x, Librairie du Liban and the American University in Cairo; see also his study, in Arabic, on the levels of Arabic.

4. I do not mean to be disingenuous here. I have not, at this point, cast my assertion that we are all striving towards the same ends in terms of the basic definition of the "proficiency orientation" ("proficiency in using the target language in real-life situations") quite consciously. My reader will see the reason in my subsequent discussion of DLI students' needs.

5. I recognize that this is not the center of proficiency theory—of which more below—but the issue of seeking out learning strategies appropriate to each learner is a major feature of the proficiency orientation and a step forward. On the efforts of adult learners and techniques appropriate to their needs, see Kulick, K. M. (1990). Foreign language proficiency and the adult learner. In S. Sieloff Magnan (Ed.), Proceedings of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages: *Shifting the instructional focus to the learner*, pp. 151-170. Also see Knowles, M. S. (1984). *Androgogy in action: Applying modern principles of adult learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

6. Please see the discussion of the native versus. non-native learner below.

7. It has been suggested that the learner-centered classroom will resolve the problem of the spoken-formal continuum in Arabic in its

relationship to student needs and motivations. In fact, the in-class availability of a wide range of (computer-assisted) approaches to language learning, wonderful as it will be, will have little bearing on this matter. It is still we, the language policy makers, who must decide what outcomes we hope to see manifest in our students. If those outcomes remain focused on reading and the comprehension of formal Arabic, we will be little inclined to program much information on spoken Arabic into our learner-centered classrooms unless we can say how doing so will aid in the final result.

8. Nicola, p. 29; Let us recall that the GITS (General Intelligence Training System) and CTS FLOs have now been reconciled one with the other and are uniform.

Author

PETER D. MOLAN, Principal Arabic Linguist (USDOD) and Adjunct Faculty Instructor in Arabic, National Cryptologic School. Specializations: Arabic discourse analysis, Arabic language pedagogy.

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Response to Peter D. Molan's Reply

Michel Nicola
School of Middle East Languages A

I am grateful to Dr. Molan for his detailed reply. His critique has prompted me to clarify some issues.

The following response is in three parts. The first part presents my perspective on some points discussed by Dr. Molan but not mentioned in my paper. The second comments on a couple of points that have become clearer in my mind as a result of Dr. Molan's critique. The third is a response to points of disagreement.

Molan's New Points

It is probably in the nature of the proficiency approach that no single textbook can gain as wide an acceptance as that of audio-visual Abboud et al. For proficiency, the most effective teaching textbook is that which remains current and is amended as the course progresses. A text written for the audiolingual/grammar approach, on the other hand, can serve its purpose for many years with little or no revision.

The grammar of spoken Arabic (SA) has a considerable impact on the learner of formal Arabic (FA). I never said or implied that it did not. This impact, however, becomes obstructive only at proficiency levels 3+ and above, when voweling, e.g., becomes important. At lower levels, the emphasis is supportive, not obstructive. For example, the rules for forming the feminine, the broken plurals and the relative adjective, are the same in SA as in FA.

Clarifications

I find Dr. Molan's interpretation of what has happened in the language teaching field in the last twenty years a bit curious. Krashen's child acquisition model supersedes the audio-lingual approach and represents a paradigmatic break with it.[1] In what sense can it be said to "underlie" it?

Unlike Dr. Molan, I believe that proficiency develops more rapidly and effectively by the use of the child's ways rather than by what he calls "adult strategies." Yet "abandoning elements of the child's acquisition model in favor of the search for strategies applicable to adults" (Molan, p. 45) is a necessity imposed by the fact that, at the initial stages of study, adults are at a serious disadvantage compared to children. Their world is different; they must pass examinations and cope with all sorts of pressures. This situation makes many of them incapable of acquiring a language in the same manner as children do, spontaneously, effortlessly. They learn slowly, incrementally; having a low tolerance for ambiguity, stimulated by the fear that anything they do not understand may be on an exam. But understanding is quite different from proficiency in using the language.

On the other hand, adults enjoy certain advantages. Their discipline and experience compensate them for the child's innate strength. In later phases of study, when activities like listening to news broadcasts or reading newspapers are undertaken, these adult advantages become clear.

It is not quite accurate to say that I consider that "the model of the dynamics of a child's learning is appropriate to the instruction of our adult students" (p.45). My article is not about the dynamics of learning but about course planning and general teaching procedures. I believe it is no longer controversial that the "piecemeal approach" is not very effective in teaching for proficiency. What are controversial are the dynamics, the details of how language learning/acquisition takes place, at present poorly understood. Current research challenges Krashen's model as well as others, but that does not mean it rejects his recommendations for teaching and course planning. Even McLaughlin, perhaps Krashen's most boisterous critic, does not reject his recommendations for teaching.[2]

It seems strange for someone who has spent all his working hours for more than a dozen years with non-native learners of Arabic, struggling with its complexities, to be criticized for facile "dismissal of the significance of the varieties of spoken Arabic" (p. 46), denying the problems that complexity poses for adult non-native learners", (Molan, p. 47), expecting that such learners be able to "move easily from one variety of Arabic to another" (p. 47) like native speakers, about the "true anguish, if not hopeless confusion" such expectations cause the students, and the discomfort that results from banning English translation, (p. 51) etc.

Do all these problems result only from this proposal, or do they appear every time we use authentic materials in earlier parts of the course? When we give our students a newspaper in the second or third week and ask them to determine its date and place of publication, and perhaps identify a few famous names from the articles, are we then denying the problems that the complexity of the newspaper language poses for the students? Is it a case of facile dismissal of the significance of the varieties of the types of language contained in the newspaper, of ignoring the "true anguish" caused by the students' inability to understand everything in it, and the discomfort we cause them by not translating it for them? I hope not.

We throw them, early on, into the sea because we aim to train competent swimmers in the real sea, not in kids' pools. Of course, we do not leave them to drown; we help them to stay afloat; but we do not change the sea. We adjust the tasks assigned, not the language itself, to be appropriate for the students' level of mastery. Such practices no longer need defense when applied to the use of authentic material. Why do they suddenly become objectionable and when applied to the study of the authentic linguistic system are perceived as based on "faulty pedagogical premises"?

Taking the different varieties of Arabic one by one as we now do is clearly unsatisfactory. Each variety alone (e.g., FA) will be found upon close scrutiny to be as complex as the entire linguistic system. It sounds absurd, but there is something similar in mathematics, the well known fact that a part of an infinite set can be equal to the entire set.[3]

For years, when we taught FA alone, without SA, we saw students plagued by all of the problems which Dr. Molan correctly identifies. The reason for these problems was not what we taught , but how we taught; i.e., the piecemeal methods that required accuracy and thoroughness from the start, and hence the closest scrutiny of what was covered. Such close scrutiny is out of place for beginners. That is why traditional methods, relying on an adult strategy of methodical coverage, have failed, both in and out of DLI.

What is to be done? Camels thrive on thistles, but if a newborn camel starts to chew on the toughest thorns, he will not live long. He eats the tender parts, and soon becomes able to chew the sharp thorns. On the other hand, if he is served only tender grass, he may not be able to survive outside the zoo. This "camel-thistle-eating model" is analogous to the child's acquisition model. A great deal of comprehension and communication can be done by the beginning student of the most complex language in the world, without touching its thorns of complexity. The challenge in teaching and studying for proficiency is to avoid chewing on these thorns from the start, yet without cutting them off and teaching a safe but tame language.

Points of Disagreement

My tables do not represent the results of any extensive or exhaustive research; still, I do not think they should be dismissed lightly. Nor should they be misinterpreted by disregarding in *Table 2* the extremely high number of students (28) opting for priority No. 1, i.e. conversing with Arabs. Although, they say that students are motivated by becoming able to acquire information, they certainly do not say that this is greater motivation for them than becoming able to converse with Arabs in their native SAs.

Dr. Molan's interpretation of *Table 1* is also glib. Of course, it is possible that the small size of the sample could cause a distortion, but what are the chances of this happening? They are less than one in 256, as a simple calculation will show. They are the same as the chances that a coin loaded in favor of tails turns up heads on being tossed eight successive times.[4] Should we so easily dismiss a result that has a less than a 1 in 256 chance of being wrong?

What DOD personnel believe and what they intend to do about the DLI Arabic program are matters beyond the scope of this paper. They obviously believe that the "vast bulk of language data which DLI students are called upon to deal with... is in FA," but, *Table 1*, despite its shortcomings, clearly points to the possibility that the use of SA in listening is very important to DLI students. The matter should be further investigated, not smugly ignored. I suspect that they are overly influenced by an entrenched traditionalist school of thought regarding Arabic and how it is used in real life, and this is hampering the development of the Arabic instructional program.

Notes

1. For a discussion of paradigm changes, see Kuhn, T. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

2. Mclaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of second language learning*. London: E. Arnold. pp. 57-58.

3. For example, the set of odd integers 1, 3, 5, 7 . . . is equal to the set of all integers 1, 2, 3, 4 . . . even though it is only part of it, because one can have a one to one correspondence between the elements of the two sets. See Cantor, G. (1955). *Contributions to the founding of the theory of transfinite numbers*. New York: Dover Publications.

4. The odds of getting heads on a toss of a fair coin are 1 in 2. The odds of getting two heads on two tosses are 1 in 4, which is two multiplied by itself. The odds of getting n successive heads in n tosses is 2 multiplied by itself n times. If $n = 8$, then the odds are 1 in 256.

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FACULTY EXCHANGE

Teaching Listening: Lessons Drawn from Classroom Observation

Sabine Atwell
School of Middle East Languages A

As the chairperson of the German department for 2-1/2 years, I frequently observed classroom lessons in progress and critiqued the interaction taking place therein. Though administrators often tend to think of classroom observation primarily as a means of evaluating a teacher's performance, it can be used very effectively in program improvement by enhancing teacher performance through training. There are two broad categories of observation: a quantitative approach which uses checklists and instruments, and a qualitative one which uses written or recorded ethnography or detailed, descriptive, neutral data of what goes on. I chose a limited written ethnographic approach; i.e., I focused on specific aspects of what happens in the classroom during the teaching of reading and listening to obtain data helpful in statistical interpretation. While observing, I took detailed notes on what teachers actually did when they taught reading and listening. I used these data to develop training in the teaching of listening comprehension, and subsequently conducted training sessions with many hands-on activities in the department.

One of the interesting as well as frustrating statistics was the disparity between reading and listening scores, which remained constant over a period of time and across Defense Language Proficiency Tests (DLPTs) III and IV. Proficiency results in reading were always excellent (between 80 and 90 percent), regardless of teacher assignment, Defense Language Aptitude Battery (DLAB) scores, curriculum changes, or student attitude; the listening scores stayed constant at about 52 percent over a period of 5 years, irrespective of teacher assignments, students, or DLAB scores, or even major changes in the curriculum. I attempted to solve the mystery by observing teachers and students in as many classes as time allowed and talking with them about their teaching and learning experiences in the two skills.

Teachers in the German department work with authentic texts throughout the course to supplement a commercial textbook, *Deutsch na* *klar (*1990*)*, which does not contain enough material for an intensive language program. In the last 10 to 12 weeks of the course they work exclusively with authentic materials for both reading and listening.

Teaching Reading

When using even the simplest reading texts such as ads, announcements, or messages, and all the way to ILR (International Language Roundtable) level 3 texts containing abstract information such as editorials, political and economic analyses, and commentaries, teachers advised students to pay attention to headlines, visual clues such as photos, graphs, charts, and even type styles. Teachers generally used pre-reading activities, paid some attention to cultural, linguistic, and content schemata that the students either knew or needed to be supplied with, and worked from global meaning to the details of a text. With higher-level texts, they encouraged contextual guessing and taught inferential reading skills. Students also worked in pairs or small groups and not always on the same texts, depending on their interests and abilities.

Reading was frequently taught as a group process in which all students participated by extracting information from the text. Furthermore, students used higher-level thinking skills such as analyzing aspects of a text or multiple texts, synthesizing, using several texts, and evaluating texts in a personal way or against criteria established by the class. A discussion or other activity followed in which vocabulary was actively used and recycled, with the goal of reinforcing long-term memory.

A majority of the teachers taught reading this way as well, with minor qualitative differences. In reviewing the schedules written by the team coordinators for their classes, I noticed that reading was taught, at most, an hour per day throughout the 34-week course. Students appeared to experience little frustration with the way they were taught this skill in most classes. Reading was also frequently assigned as homework.

Teaching Listening

In observing how teachers went about teaching listening, quite another picture emerged. Although listening was taught for 2 hours daily early in the course, and for 3 or more hours in later stages, the results were poor. Teachers used taped texts or texts from SCOLA (the multi-lingual news service DLI subscribes to and receives via satellite), and various radio broadcasts and other sources. They used a wide variety of listening materials in the topical areas relevant for our students. They used ILR level 3 texts to a much lesser degree, however,

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mostly because these types of advanced-level spoken texts are not readily available on SCOLA.

Almost all of the teachers approached the teaching of listening comprehension in a testing mode, very different from the way they were teaching reading. Teachers for the most part played the passage without any introduction, usually only once or at most twice, and then asked the students test questions or gave them worksheets in the following formats: comprehension questions, true/false, or multiple-choice items. After the teacher played the text, he or she generally called on a student to answer a question. If a particular student did not know the answer, another would be called upon, or the teacher would supply the correct answer and pose the next question.

Teachers did not generally use pre-listening activities, and taught listening in a "vocabulary quiz" mode. They decided which vocabulary they needed to ask about and often had it underlined in their scripts. They asked whether the students had understood certain vocabulary items rather than whether they had processed the information given in the text.

During my classroom observations I often noticed that many students who understood isolated vocabulary items demonstrated no clear understanding of the coherence of the text or the relationships between events, people, or ideas because of the way teachers focused on comprehension. I observed many classes in which the discrete items for which the teacher asked were answered correctly, but the students did not appear to comprehend the totality of a given text when asked to recount or gist the passage.

I observed that teachers generally did not set a listening objective for themselves and therefore did not communicate it to their students, which would allow them to focus on it. At the lower end of the comprehension scale, for example, an objective could be to focus on the main cause of an accident, the main idea of a news broadcast, or what two people were talking about in general. Around ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) 1+/ 2, an objective would be to understand the sequence of a series of events or the details of a police report or naval accident; the causes and effects of events; the future plans of a given government. At the higher end of the scale, ILR 2+/ 3, and toward the end of the program, an objective could be to trace the argument of a political commentator on the future of NATO; understanding the arguments for and against health reform; or to comprehend allegations and innuendos in a speech. The setting of objectives is derived from the nature of the text in each case. In the absence of specific objectives, it is understandable that listening comprehension degenerated into a vocabulary quiz and that teachers were not able to evaluate if the students had accurately comprehended the texts. Even advanced-level texts were processed in this "testing vocabulary" fashion, in 1 hour, much as in the format of the DLPT, switching from topic to topic and using multiple-choice formats.

Comparison

Thus, the two skills were taught quite differently. Reading was taught as a group process where everyone had a chance to contribute and the texts were exploited fully and followed by integrative activities; listening was essentially tested without being taught. In other words, reading was taught, while listening was tested.

It is a truism that reading in German, an Indo-European language which shares an alphabet, cognates, and other similarities with English, is a skill in which students progress more rapidly than in listening. Since reading involves learning by sight and listening entails auditory learning, a greater number of students in the German department are visual learners rather than auditory ones.

A great majority of students in the department appeared to be analytic learners who were able to deal with a text in front of them because they could use their best strategy, the analytic approach. That is to say, they deal first with the parts of a text and then put the pieces back together to come up with a whole, in this case a detailed understanding of a written text. Since this approach does not lend itself to listening, analytic learners often experience more problems with this skill, at least at the beginning of the course. This is particularly acute with non-participatory listening, a type without an interlocutor, where a student listens to taped broadcasts without the benefit of the physical cues an interlocutor might render. Thus, a tape is running and students are not able to analyze incrementally what is being said. Their best strategy does not work with listening unless they learn to focus more globally on the message from the very beginning.

Further, reading is not complicated by a speaker's idiosyncracies in terms of pitch, intonation, and regional dialect. By contrast, the listener must very early in the course contend with a wide divergence of speech patterns while being taught, or exposed to taped lessons.

Lexical recovery for reading is far easier than for listening. The reader, unsure of the meaning of a word or a phrase or the significance of a structure, can go back over the text and guess from context. This activity involves only minimal retention problems, while the memory challenge for a listener is far greater.

Language-specific features such as the verb position in a great number of German clauses, particularly in densely packed news language, or the preponderance of compound nouns, pose less of a problem in reading than in listening. In a reading activity the student is able to locate the subject and the verb, regardless of location in a sentence, and then is able to identify the information associated with the subject and the verb. In addition to verb position in German, there are many separable-prefix verbs, with the prefix at the end of the sentence giving specific meaning to the verb. The following examples (SCOLA news segments) are typical of this type of language:

> *Das neue, von der Regierung der Bundesrepublik zur Konsolidierung der Deutschen Bundesbank ausgearbeitete Konzept* **sieht** (verb) *hohe Investitionen* **für** *den Aufbau eines gesamtwirtschaftlich orientierten Eisenbahnnetzes* **vor** (prefix).

Literal translation:

> The new, by the government of the Federal Republic for the consolidation of the German Federal Reserve worked out concept, **provides** huge investments the building of an entire economy-oriented railroad net **for**.

vorsehen or the conjugated form **sieht . . . vor** (to provide for) is crucial to understanding what the government is planning.

Another example would be:

> *Die Zigarettenwerbung* **propagiert** *den Rauchgenuss ohne Reue, damit die Raucher nicht an die Gefahren des Nikotins, die Folgen frühzeitigen Nikotingenusses, das Problem der Abhängigkeitsgefahr vom Nikotin sowie das dauernde Einatmen vom Zigarettenrauch* **denken**.

Literal translation:

> Cigarette advertising **propagates** enjoyment of smoking without regret, in order that the smokers not of the dangers of nicotine, the consequences of early smoking, the problem of addiction to nicotine, as well as the steady inhaling of cigarette smoke **think**.

In this sentence there are two verbs. The first, *propagiert,* is in second position where a speaker of English would expect it; the second, *denken*, is at the end of a long enumeration of factors and is dependent on *damit* (in order that). A native speaker of German is much more able than a learner of German to predict the verb which comes much later in the sentence and to retain the information which comes before the verb but is associated with it.

Listening is also more difficult than reading due to the stress patterns of compound nouns. For example, the word *Topfpflanze* (potted plant) is stressed on *Topf-* but the main compound is *-pflanze*, which is not stressed. Nouns can have more than two compounds. In another example, the compound *Rauschgiftspürhunde* (drug-sniffing dogs), *Rauschgift* is stressed, but *-hunde* (dogs) carries the main meaning of the word. When listening, students could misconstrue these words as *pot* and *drugs*, rather than *plant* and *dogs*.

Yet, in my view, these factors, which make reading in German easier than listening, did not account for the great and constant disparity in results in the two skill modalities over a period of 5 years.

Remedy

This situation needed to be addressed to enhance the teaching of listening to bring it up to par with the teaching of reading, and to improve proficiency results for listening.

My colleague, Claudia Bey, who was the in-service leader for the School of Central European Languages, and I researched the professional literature on the teaching of listening and reading comprehension. We wanted to develop a workshop which would offer the teachers a theoretical basis, a model, and some hands-on practice in teaching listening comprehension before testing it. The workshop we developed deals with how we process language, particularly when we listen; the importance of schema building in all three areas—content, cultural, and linguistic; the differences between listening and reading comprehension; and a five-step approach to teaching listening comprehension.

We set the following objectives for participants of the workshop:

- Understand the difference between teaching and testing listening comprehension.
- Understand top-down (global) as well as bottom-up (text-driven and detailed) listening tasks.
- Activate or create schema and understand the role of schemata.
- Design tasks around authentic listening passages in comprehension, using the principles of schema theory and language processing.
- Analyze a specific text and generate tasks for follow-on activities.

Step 1. Setting a Listening Objective

What degree of comprehension does the teacher expect, specifically? It varies, depending on where the student is in the course; for example, if the teacher plays a TV or radio commercial during the first or second week of class, the degree of comprehension expected from the student might be just to understand what item was advertised,

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possibly only one word. However, if that same commercial is used when the student has progressed much further along in the course, listening objectives may call for the identification of a technique used to entice the prospective buyer, type of music played, and reasons why. In reviewing the material prior to class, the teacher should have a clear understanding of the degree of comprehension he/she expects for a particular text and inform the class accordingly. Specific listening objectives enable the teacher to determine whether the students have reached them. They serve as diagnostic tools as well as a basis for developing further material. For example, if students consistently fail to grasp an idea, it is useless to develop materials which perpetuate such failure.

Step 2. Schema Building

Schema, or background knowledge, is the general information that a listener brings to the text. This knowledge may be in the form of previous knowledge of the topic, e.g., earthquakes; it may be cultural, e.g., Germany's national health care system; it may be situational, e.g., conduct at cocktail parties; or it may be linguistic, e.g., German gender, position of verbs, and agreement of adjectives and nouns. Schema building is particularly important when a text contains unfamiliar cultural knowledge which, unless demonstrated or explained by the teacher, may impede comprehension. For example, in one of the classes which I observed, a teacher played a straight level 2 news passage dealing with the varying economic strengths of countries in the European Community (EC). The argument was that countries in the North and West, as well as the "G-7," overcame problems, while countries in the "soft underbelly" of Europe (none were specified) suffered from severe economic problems. None of the students in the class was able to comprehend what was said, though linguistically the text was simple. In the subsequent discussion it became apparent that the students were unaware who the G-7 are and that the southern countries in the EC, Spain and Portugal, are economically weaker than France, Germany, and Italy. This information the teacher could provide through asking questions and finding out what students knew or did not know, or could simply supply to the students, using maps and some short reading texts about member countries of the EC.

Step 3. Top-Down or Global Listening Tasks

These global or general listening tasks require more use of background knowledge one has acquired through schema building in understanding the meaning of a text. Examples of such tasks might be:

- Listening to conversations and determining the context.

- Guessing the meaning of headlines and listening to the news.
- Identifying the topic of the text.

These tasks set the stage for more detailed work with the text.

Step 4. Bottom-Up Tasks or Tasks which Deal Directly with the Text

Bottom-up processing refers to the use of a specific text as a source of information about the message. It deals with detailed understanding of a text. For this activity, for example, a text would be played about several individuals involved in a swimming accident. The detailed non-participatory listening task would have the students glean as much information as they could about the people and their roles in this incident. The teacher might supply them with a chart on which they would enter the information.

Step 5. Follow-On Activities which Integrate the Skills

Follow-on activities integrate the completed listening activity with other skills such as reading a text about the same topic and discussing the differences; or having a speaking activity; or writing an editorial on a controversial topic. The purpose of this activity would be to practice and recycle the vocabulary through speaking or writing.

The workshop consisted of information processing theory, theory on schemata or script, and 12 hours of hands-on practice in departmental tutorial style. We trained small groups of teachers in 2-hour segments so as not to interrupt the teaching of classes or burden the teaching teams. All teachers were given three seminal articles to read prior to the workshop:

Glisan, E. W. (1988, November). A plan for teaching listening comprehension: Adaptation of an instructional reading model. *FL Annals*, Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

Lund, R. J. (1990). *A taxonomy for teaching second language listening*. Brigham Young University.

Richards, J. (1990). Designing instructional materials for teaching listening comprehension. In *The teaching matrix: Designing instructional materials for teaching listening comprehension* (pp. 50-66).

We exposed the teachers to English language tapes which prompted them to think about "American" schemata which they may or

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may not have themselves. Our Academic Coordinator helped us choose three schemata: one dealing with Star Trek, another with wrestling, and a third with courtroom scenes.

We conducted many workshops in which small groups of teachers prepared materials using this five-step approach, critiqued each other gingerly, and in general got a better handle on teaching this skill. Afterwards, we conducted three follow-on visits for each teacher. Subsequently, the workshop has been conducted in various schools with a good deal of interest.

Results

We began to see improvement in classroom instruction as teachers began to receive helpful and specific feedback on their performance as well as advice on how to work with texts they wanted to use. Subsequently we met with the teams and decided to separate the teaching and testing sessions for students. We agreed to emphasize teaching rather than testing. Listening scores began to go up and held over time as students were more overtly taught how to process information through listening, though it is always difficult to make a direct connection in teaching or education between process and results achieved, due do the many variables involved. We had to convince our students that this awareness would reduce their frustration and develop better listening skills. Our task was not always easy, since many students wanted as much testing as possible in preparation for the final DLPT. Not all teachers were easily convinced either, as this approach to teaching listening requires much thoughtful preparation, though virtually no paperwork. However, this approach was very rewarding in another way: we all worked together as professional colleagues on what was our main concern, the improvement of our program.

Acknowledgment

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Author

Sabine Atwell, Academic Coordinator, School of Middle East Languages A, DLI. Specializations: student-centered learning, second language acquisition, integrative teaching.

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Teaching Culture through Language Analysis: Use of Pronouns in the Egyptian Dialect

Mamdouh El-Nady
School of Middle East Languages B

It has been said that we can judge any man or woman by his or her diction. Similarly, the language of any nation is a window through which we can look into its culture. "Culture is really an integral part of the interaction between language and thought. Cultural patterns, customs, and ways of life are expressed in language; culture-specific world views are reflected in language" (Brown, p. 138).

If we look at Egyptian idioms, we find in each of them an elucidation of ethnic custom: The culture reveals itself both through idioms which express friendly feelings, as in greeting and welcoming, and idioms of a superstitious and disavowing nature, which seek to contravene ill-fortune and death.

Idioms Associated with Friendly Feelings

Egyptians are very friendly. Tourism is a significant source of revenue, and Egyptians are most hospitable to strangers in their land. There are many ways to say that you are welcome and that you will be looked after:

ahan nashilak ala rasna.
We carry you on our head.

ha nwalla sawabeana sham'a.
We will light our fingers as candles for you.

zarna ennabi
We have been visited by the prophet.

ed-dunia nawart.
The world has been illuminated.

naharna abiad.
Our day is white.

da yum ead.
The day of your visit is a holiday.

In these idioms, Egyptians are saying to their guests: *We all welcome you. You are very important to us. Your visit makes us happy.* We see words which indicate brightness and happiness (*candles, lighted, white*) or expressions which indicate the importance of the visitor and how much such a visit means to Egyptians (*visited by the Prophet* or *your visit is a holiday*).

There are many different greetings in the Egyptian dialect:

marhabtin
two welcomes

salamo alikoom
peace on you

sabah el-ward
morning of flowers (as, good morning)

sabah el-full
morning of jasmine (as, good morning)

azai sehatak
How is your health? (How are you?)

In these idioms, Egyptians are saying: *We would like to give you flowers. We are concerned about your safety and well-being. All the good feeling you have for us, we have twice for you.* The language of flowers is an international one, and in Egyptian culture the words *flower* and *jasmine* are used to show love and friendship. *Peace* and *health*, which connote safety, are used to show concern and sincerity. The Egyptian's response to a welcome is sometimes, *two welcomes.*

Egyptians, having been through good and bad times in their long history, are close to one another. Relationships in the family and workplace are strong:

raeis el-aila el-masria
eldest of the Egyptian family (refers to the president of Egypt)

kolina qalb wahid
We are one heart.

kolina fi elhawasawa
We are all together in the air (meaning, we share the same problems and face the same risks.)

akhona fi alla
our brother in God (used when introducing an Egyptian of a different religion)

Egyptians say in these idioms: *We are united, we are one big family.* Expressions such as *family*, *we all*, *one heart*, *together*, and *brother* which appear in these idioms, reinforce strong relationships among Egyptians.

Idioms Associated with Death, Magic, etc.

Death has long played an important part in Egyptian culture; the pyramids are an enduring example of this. Egyptians talk among themselves a lot about life after death, using such words as *devil*, *hell*, *sin*, and *spirit*, which appear in such expressions as:

> *howa shitaan*
> He is a devil (a bad person).
>
> *gohanam*
> It is hell. (It is hot.)
>
> *tala rohi*
> He got my spirit out of me. (He bothered me too much.)

Mystery and black magic, too, are a part of the Egyptians' long history, as we can see in these idioms:

> *qdomo ynashif ez-zat*
> His coming dries the oil (brings bad luck).
>
> *ainha tefleq el-hager*
> Her eyes cut stone. (Her jealous eyes have supernatural magic which can destroy any good thing.)
>
> *ainha safra*
> She has yellow eyes (same meaning as above).
>
> *zi el-gorab*
> He is as the crow. (He always brings bad news.)
>
> *zi el-boma*
> She is as the owl. (She is bad luck.)

Use of Personal Pronouns

To express outgoing, sincere, and happy feelings, Egyptians use mostly the first person plural of pronouns—*we* and *our*. Notably, there is no use of *I* and *my*, or *he/she* and *his/her*. For example, in the expression, *we carry you on our head*, the Egyptian uses *we* and *our*. The same usage is followed in the idioms, *we will light our fingers*, *our day is white*, *we hear as one*, *we are all together*, and *our brother in God*.

Similarly, in the expressions, *two welcomes*, *peace on you*, *the day of your visit is a holiday*, *morning of flowers*, and *morning of jasmine*, an Egyptian does not say *I* welcome you, or *my* peace, or *my* day. The Egyptians avoid using *I* in certain idioms in accordance with the tenet of the Islamic faith that people should be modest and not mention the good things that they have. They believe that calling attention to one's good fortune may bring the scrutiny of jealous eyes, causing troubles.

In idioms associated with evil, death, and superstition, Egyptians use the third person: *He* is a devil, *it* is hell, *he* got me out of my spirit, *his* coming . . . *her* eyes . . . *he* is as the crow, and *she* is as the owl. It is noteworthy that in these expressions there is no use of *we* or *I*. Perhaps in their unity as a people, they employ the usage of the third person symbolically to isolate the bad or harmful, excluding it from the group.

Conclusion

Culture and language are inseparable. Many schools teach culture to aid students in learning language, which may well be an effective approach; learning idioms can increase both listening and reading comprehension skills, and understanding the culture may help students to use the language appropriately. Although Arabic language and culture have been studied in full measure, the specific effect of teaching local cultures and dialects on learning the Arabic language has been little explored. Can teaching culture or local dialect help the student learn Arabic language better, and to what extent?

Moreover, language can be the key to understanding culture; by examining the language of the Egyptian people, we can understand them better. These idioms, which have evolved spontaneously among the people of Egypt, give us between-the-lines explanations of certain details of their way of life, and collectively they provide a key to Egyptian culture. Thus, the idea of language as a window to culture needs to be examined more closely with reference to Arabic language and Egyptian culture and other languages and cultures.

Many teachers, seeing themselves as language instructors, rather than cultural or area studies specialists, lack an interest in teaching culture, and simply give their students books in English for self-study, or show them movies. Can teaching through language analysis make the task of teaching culture more acceptable and more interesting?

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Author

MAMDOUH EL-NADY, Training Specialist, VTT, School of Middle East Languages B, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93940-5006. Interests: foreign language pedagogy, materials development, computer-assisted instruction, and socio-linguistics.

REVIEW

MARGARET K. (OMAR) NYDELL. (1991). **Arabic Dialect Series. From Modern Standard Arabic to the Iraqi Dialect, Levantine Dialects, Maghrebi Dialects—Conversation Courses**. Arlington, VA: Diplomatic Language Services.

Reviewed by HOWARD D. ROWLAND
Training Coordinator,
School of Middle East Languages A

This is a series of books which began publication in 1991, and an Egyptian version is also soon to appear. The books' purpose is to serve as Arabic dialect familiarization courses for speakers of English who have a minimum of ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) Level 2 proficiency in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). Each book has a basic part (an average of 350 pages long) plus a Classroom Activity Supplement with Answer Key, and the courses are designed to be used with a teacher, preferably a native speaker of the dialect.

The contents of each book are segregated by grammatical categories (such as pronunciation, nouns, adjectives, participles, pronouns, perfect/imperfect verbs, adverbs, numbers, etc.) and dealt with accordingly, and each section is designed to be studied independently of the others. The books employ an accurate and simple transliteration system throughout, and the corresponding Arabic script equivalent is always provided (making them ideal for use by both the learner and native-speaker teacher).

The general approach is to start each section with a brief introductory note, then provide numerous examples of the features—discussed and prefaced by brief explanatory notes—which both characterize the dialect in question and compare and contrast these features with those of MSA (and sometimes those of other related Arabic dialects). This is then followed, in each case, by a number of sample sentences and several dialogues (with translations) illustrating the use of these features.

The purpose of each book is to enable a student with proficiency in MSA to comprehend a given dialect and then build on this knowledge—rather then to serve as a textbook to teach the learner to speak the dialect. I believe that the books admirably achieve this goal and might serve as valuable tools and materials for use in our DLI Arabic curriculum.

Although the books are generally of a very high academic standard and are thorough, the author should have made more of an effort to gain the input of native speakers as reviewers of the manuscripts. For example, in the case of the Levantine and Maghrebi dialect books, no native speakers are listed as reviewing consultants, and only Father Solomon Sara is shown as having reviewed the book on the Iraqi dialect (in which the speech of the small Christian minority can differ considerably from that of the Muslim majority). Instead, the author seems to have relied mainly on her own knowledge plus that of other non-native Arabists, as well as dictionaries and reference grammars. For this reason, in the Levantine and Iraqi books one occasionally finds minor inaccuracies and inconsistencies, as well as the presentation of rather rare forms instead of other more standard ones. In the Levantine book, for example, "Syria" is rendered as "suurya" rather than "suuriyya;" "or" is "walla" rather than "willa;" and the feminine form for "big" and "small" is sometimes shown as "kbiira" and "Sghiira" (not normally said in the Levantine dialects) and other times as "kbiire" and "Sghiire." And in the Iraqi book, we find, for example, "they came" to be "jawwi" rather than "ijaw" or "jaw;" "to show" is rendered as "rawwa/yirawwi" rather than "raawa/yiraawi" (and the very common variant "shawwaf/yishawwuf" is, I believe, never even mentioned); "yes" is mainly shown to be "eeh" rather than "iih;" and the word for "these" is often rendered as "hadhanni," an extremely rare (in Baghdad, at least) feminine variant of "dhoola" or "hadhoola."

In spite of these easily remedied flaws, this series is a welcome addition to the field of Arabic studies and should go a long way toward helping English-speaking learners achieve proficiency in the various forms of spoken Arabic.

NEWS AND VIEWS

ACTFL '93 — A Personal View

Mehmet Ali Cicekdag
School of Middle East Languages A

As far as professional conferences are concerned, I rate myself a "novice-high," i.e., with limited conference skills. Below is a semiofficial description of my subjective level, quoted from *Wickwaxer Proficiency Guidelines* by Genelle Morain:

> Novice High: Limited conference skills. Wears name tag religiously. Can locate rooms for most presentations if convention area has no more than two corridors. Attends General Sessions and Business Meetings. Takes notes on both. Able to sustain interest through full day of sessions, including those scheduled at 5:00 p.m. and on Saturday afternoon. Sits in front row. Registers embarrassment when boorish attendee clumps out during presentation. Browses through Exhibits Area. Purchases two posters and an "I Love Foreign Languages" button. Carries plastic book bag from publisher. Eats three meals a day in hotel coffee shop. Remains in room at night to recopy notes, study free brochures distributed by exhibitors, and write postcards with photo of conference hotel.

Except for eating three meals a day in hotel coffee shop, the definition fits like a glove. In reality, I survived on a steady diet of blackened catfish and good red wine. OK, I did not recopy my notes, either.

We were 4,000 people strong at the Convention in San Antonio. While running around like headless chickens in the convention area, Mr. Attallah and I were pleasantly surprised to find out that DLI indeed enjoyed a good reputation among the attendees. A summary of presentations and workshops I participated in is as follows:

Saturday, November 20

Orientation for First-Time Attendees

Those of us who admitted to being first-time participants did not exceed 50. In the biggest hall at the convention I really felt like a novice. Our own Ray Clifford, President of ACTFL, provided a familiar face. Best part: I obtained a copy of the *Wickwaxer Proficiency Guidelines*.

Opening General Session

This time that huge hall was packed with old-timers. We had the pleasure of listening to one of the best keynote speakers ever, Woody Woodford, who talked about the sorry condition of foreign languages in the U.S. and addressed not only our minds, but also our hearts in a very humorous, biting way.

The Interactive Task as Blueprint for Proficiency Goals

Bill vanPatten gave many examples of interactive tasks that can be used to specify the goals of a lesson. These goals, in turn, determine the linguistic items needed to be taught. Interesting.

Dealing with the Two-Humped Camel: Activities for the Diverse Students in Your Classroom

As a Middle Easterner, I could not resist that one. What do we do when the bell-shaped curve in our classroom shifts to look like a two-humped camel? Cathy Wilson and Estella Gahala provided solutions for working with academically able and less able learners in the same classroom.

Sunday, November 21

Designing Conversation Activities to Engage Critical Thinking

Madelaine Lively, Mary Williams, and Jane Harper—three energetic conventioneers—provided us with the best handout of the convention and shared their insights on designing conversation activities for practicing critical thinking.

What Language Teachers Can Learn from Educational Psychology, Special Education, and English

David Crowner, Dianne Lemonnier Schallert, and James Kinneavy—panelists from these three disciplines—talked about research and practice that produced valuable insights into how people learn and what makes good teaching. I was especially interested in how students with learning difficulties learn foreign languages and asked this question: "Chomsky says that all of us have 'language acquisition devices' in our heads. Do these people have less perfect LAD's, or don't we know how to trigger these mechanisms?" The answer was, "a little bit of both."

Language Anxiety and Gender: How Men and Women Differ

Christine Campbell, a very competent colleague from DLI, gave us an overview of research in language anxiety and discussed the results of a study that examined levels of language anxiety in men and women. I was intrigued to learn that men registered higher levels of anxiety than women. It must be our macho images.

Monday, November 22

The Real Information Gap

Robert Davis and Cheryl Krueger outlined the results of a survey that investigated differences in students' and teachers' expectations in foreign language classrooms. As expected, the biggest differences were in grammar presentation (most students prefer that to be done in advance); the teaching of culture (we teachers believe in it more); translation; and grammar drills (God forbid). I obtained copies of the questionnaires and hope to conduct similar research at DLI.

We All Have Special Needs: Special Teaching Strategies for the Regular Classroom

Joan Turner and Dianne Brain, two enthusiastic scholars, summarized recent findings from research on the teaching of learning disabled students and demonstrated how these strategies can be adopted for regular classroom use. I was impressed.

How Do You Learn Best? Developing Metacognitive Awareness Among Foreign Language Students

This 3-hour workshop was presented by another colleague, Maurice Funke. He dealt with students with different learning styles in a foreign language classroom. There was a great deal of audience participation. He was professional and loose enough to accommodate the burned-out Monday late afternoon survivors.

By that time, I, too, was "conventioned-out." Still, we spent some time at the technology fair and drooled over interactive CD-ROM players, videodisks, and other high-tech gear. I hope to see some Turkish software some day.

Overall, it was a great experience. It proved to me once again that we learn a great deal from one another. I would like to go to another ACTFL convention—to become an "intermediate-low."

Author

MEHMET ALI CICEKDAG, Program Coordinator, Turkish Branch, School of Middle East Languages A, DLI. Specializations: cross-cultural communication, political science.

CALL FOR PAPERS: The ERIC clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics invites you to submit papers, reports, curricula or other materials for inclusion in the ERIC database. Submissions should be sent to:

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Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit a previously unpublished article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your original manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession. It is the policy of *Dialog on Language Instruction* not to accept multiple submissions.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and list findings.

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References*. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

> Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 16 (1)*, pp. 93-95.
>
> Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of the manuscript should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g., (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238). All works cited in

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the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript.

Notes should be used for substantive information only, and they should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript. Subsequently they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes*.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, video tapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but *brief* statement of the work's contents and a critical assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8-1/2" x 11" paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1-1/4" on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized.

Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An author's name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLI), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

Author

JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America,
226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306.
Interests: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed., 1983), available from the American Psychological Association, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Specifications for Floppy Disks

Where feasible, manuscripts are preferred on disk (Xerox GlobalView or DOS). They should be entered on the disk as an ASCII file if possible.

When mailing a floppy disk, please enclose the following:

1. Word processing software used: ______________________
2. Saved as an ASCII file? YES _____ NO _____
3. Disk is formatted as: double ___ high density ___
4. Remarks: ______________________________________
____

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their names on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3" x 5" card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division, and telephone number.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DCI-C (Editor), Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, Commandant
Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center
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ATFL: DCI - C
ATTN: Editor, *Dialog on Language Instruction*
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944 - 5006

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The Power of Politeness around the World

Maria Z. Ford
Defense Language Institute

This article addresses issues of verbal communication around the world and explores the power of various linguistic means of expressing politeness. It summarizes relevant research on the subject. It defines positive and negative politeness and focuses on perceptions about the sociolinguistic grounds for using polite terms for distancing and highlights the ambiguous nature of politeness.

The exploration of the various linguistic means of establishing boundaries leads to the inference that the need for formality is brought about by inequality among people. Beneath the surface differences, cultures around the world display amazing similarities in the linguistic means of expressing politeness. This realization appears to take on a new significance for our cosmopolitan world in the Age of Information.

Introduction

Exposure to various cultures at an early age aroused my interest in the subject of politeness and its role in spoken communication around the world. When I was in high school a class assignment in French literature was a paper on Moliere's comedy *Le Misanthrope*—the story of two friends: a "people lover" and a "people hater," and their trials and tribulations in seventeenth-century France. My classmates and I were required to take sides: for the "people hater" who thrived on bluntness or the "people lover" who excelled at politeness. A heated discussion centered on the issue of whether people needed to be polite and whether there was hypocrisy in politeness. We reached a consensus that society needed politeness as much as the earth needed rain, and that politeness enabled humanity to live, cooperate, and communicate in a complex world. The issue still intrigues me.

Politeness is a courteous way of expressing ourselves with the intention of establishing personal and social boundaries, on the one hand, and placating interlocutors, on the other.

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Key Players in the Research of Politness

The subject has been researched by several experts in the field. For example, Brown and Gilman (1986) distinguish between solidarity and politeness. Brown and Levinson (1979) classify politeness into two categories—positive and negative. They claim that the former contributes to establishing intimate relationships among people, whereas the latter distances people. According to these authors, positive politeness is used to "satisfy the hearer's positive face," therefore, it contributes to establishing relationships of intimacy. They also point out that negative politeness seeks to minimize the imposition of "face-threatening speech acts on behalf of the hearer". Therefore, negative politeness is associated with distance, self-effacement, formality, and indirectness.

In an attempt to examine negative politeness that I call "distancing politeness," I will review related literature in search of answers to the following questions:

- Why is it necessary to distance ourselves from others?
- What linguistic means do people around the world use to express the distancing power of politeness?
- What do these linguistic means have in common?

On the personal level there is a perceived need to distance ourselves from other individuals because consciously or unconsciously we differentiate between what Martin (1964) calls the "out-group" and the "in-group." Accepting someone as a member of our "in-group" is a matter of conscious choice and until we make that choice we maintain a distance. On the social level, we distance ourselves because of inequalities among people—political, economic, and social. Inequalities exist at every level and in every unit of society, including the family. As a result, our relationships with others differ in the degree of intimacy or distance.

Politeness in Different Languages and Cultures

Languages around the world have developed intricate networks of sophisticated means to express closeness, deference, distance, and power. The same linguistic terms can play a dual, ambiguous role. Why? Probably because politeness itself could be ambiguous... Is this really the case?

To answer this question, we should examine the linguistic means of expressing politeness. Indo-European and other languages make the distinction between the polite and the familiar forms of personal pronouns. Other languages employ elaborate systems of honorifics, titles, and special forms to express the subtleties of the power and solidarity of the relationships.

Personal Pronouns

According to Brown and Gilman (1986), the distinction between the "familiar" *tu* and the "formal" *vous* originated in Latin. Around the fourth century there were two emperors—one, in Rome; the other, in Constantinople—and each one was addressed in plural. This could be how plurality originated. Even nowadays, royalty may refer to themselves as "we" because they feel they represent the people.

However, the *tu/vous* distinction also exists in languages whose evolution was independent from that of Latin, such as Yiddish, Turkish, Greek, Hindi, or some African languages. According to Grevisse (1988) the use of *vous* may go back to the Roman emperor Gordian III or it may be Far Eastern in origin. The idea is that if one person is addressed in the plural, this person is considered "important." Grevisse (1988) comments on the proper usage of t/v:

> *Vous* establishes a certain distance; it is used with an unknown person or a person to whom one owes respect... In Old French... the two pronouns alternated in the same passage. In the seventeenth century the usage of the court established *Vous* as the polite form. (p. 1025)

From this statement we can infer that *vous* became the distancing form. Is this still the case?

Lambert and Tucker (1969) published the results of several studies on the use of t/v conducted in French Canada, in France (on the Isle of St. Pierre-et-Miquelon), in Puerto Rico, and in Columbia. They examined the preferred t/v patterns of interaction among teenagers and concluded that t/v was used for formality and distancing on the basis of *age, sex, setting, social class, in-group or out-group boundaries*, in that order. Their conclusion was that the t/v pronouns were used interchangeably to denote politeness, deference, and distance. The t/v choice depends on the linguistic and social context. The usage varies from country to country and from linguistic community to linguistic community. For example, *tu* can be used in a non-reciprocal manner intentionally, to build a barrier between the speakers. This happens when one uses *vous* to address a relative stranger and receives *tu* in response. The implication is that the *tu* user treats the *vous* user as an inferior, but it may be that the *tu* user wishes to establish intimacy while failing to ask for permission to do so.

Bates and Benigni (1975) conducted a study of the t/v usage in Italy. They interviewed 117 adults of the pre-World War II and the post-World War II generations. They summarize their findings as follows:

> Results indicate a powerful age-class interaction in overall degree of formality. Young upper-class subjects are by far the least formal of the social groups... Lower class youths are the most formal with older subjects falling in between. Most Italians are likely to expect to receive the same address form that they give; the only clearly

> functional non-reciprocal relationships involve differences of age rather than status. (p. 53)

What are the possible explanations of the lack of formality witnessed in upper-class Italian youths? Is it an attempt to appear egalitarian and democratic or is it that they have replaced *vos* of the old days by a trendier *tu*? Do they establish distance and assert status through the linguistic expression of solidarity? Is it real solidarity or can it be reverse snobbishness? Is the saying true that the "anti-snobs" are more snobbish than the snobs.

Maybe the politeness in lower class youths can be explained by their aspiration to become members of the upper class, hence their use of hyper correction? Or it could be in-group solidarity. After all, the upper-class youths do not belong to the lower class group so they are politely excluded.

In one of the most interesting parts of this study, Bates and Benigni describe the difficulty Italians presumably experience in deciding at what age children should begin to use the formal *lei*, and at what age they should begin to receive it. A possible explanation of the difficulty may be that the t/v choice is controlled subconsciously and the conscious mind cannot analyze it directly.

E. Bates (1976) looks at first language acquisition and follows the linguistic development of two Italian children. She reports that already at he age of three to four, these children became versed in the use of formal-informal personal pronouns to express politeness, especially when negotiating the granting of a wish by their parents. Thus humans learn at an early age to use deference for acceptance and, perhaps, personal gain.

Clyne (1984) reports seven different forms of address in German, using only three personal pronouns: *du*, *sie*, *ihr*. He observes that in the past *du* was used in fairly close relationships and among people of the same sex. In the late sixties German students adopted the democratic du to address one another regardless of sex. *Sie* was the form of social distance. In the eighties, which were characterized by the re-establishment of traditional values, the situation seemed to have been reversed with *sie* gaining more ground.

Such usage of *du*, *sie*, and *ihr* raises the question of whether or not political and social liberalism favors *tu*, while conservatism opts for *vous*. On the other hand, a major social change is accompanied by linguistic changes, especially in the use of t/v. For example, prior to both the French and the Russian revolutions, formality through *vous* was the norm only to be replaced overnight by the *tu* of "solidarity," enforced even by the new political forces in power. According to Chaika (1989) in France:

> young French people tutoyer (use tu to) each other as a sign of acceptance as an equal, but, in earlier, less casual times, to tutoyer someone who was not an equal could be an insult. (p. 209)

If "familiarity breeds contempt," is distance not preferable? Perhaps, when perceived as appropriate. Overall, the studies in the field of t/v seem to indicate that the use of the familiar versus the formal pronominal forms of address is dynamic. *Tu* seems to be "fashionable" for a while, then *vous* appears to take over. Is it fashion, is it tradition, or is there a link between the t/v usage and the swing of the political and social pendulum? Why is it that English treats everybody as "important" by using *you* in all cases, while other languages sort people out into "more important" and "less important"? Is it that English encourages that we maintain social distance at all times? I feel that tradition and social stability play a major role in the formality reflected in the language. Political change is usually accompanied by social change and a corresponding switch of preference for either *tu* or *vous*. In my native Bulgaria, until the overthrow of the communist regime in November 1989, politeness had become an endangered species. Linguistic rudeness and indiscriminate use of *tu* reigned supremely. During the last six years there has been a dramatic shift toward politeness of expression through the use of *vous, Title, and Last Name*.

What are the reasons for using *vous* for distancing? Brown and Levinson (1978) give one:

> 'You' (plural) provides a conventional 'out' for the hearer (as R. Lakoff (1973a) has observed)... 'you' (plural) can be understood as... conventional indirectness. (p. 96)

Brown and Levinson (1978, p.98) provide also another reason. In all societies a person's social status is linked to membership in a group. The plural *vous* of deference or distance is used to refer to the individual as a 'shareholder' in the power of his or her group. A Tamil village where forms such as "*our (inclusive)*" and "*our (exclusive)*" are used to establish "in-groupness" and "out-groupness" provides an example of such deference.

Yet another reason may be a euphemistic avoidance to point out individuals. For instance, in Malagasy, according to Keenan (1978) plural pronouns are used both to avoid singling out individuals and to place them in a group. This indirectness in pronominal usage resembles some of the naming practices examined below.

In English where *thee-thou* are obsolete, the t/v distinction is made through the use of names, titles, ranks, register selection, and code-switching.

Names and Titles

Names and titles around the world are used to establish intimacy or distance. In English, as in any other language, it is difficult to establish any fixed norms of usage of names and titles and their combinations. However, some rules do govern their distribution. *Title + Last Name* usually shows social distance and is the proper address to superiors, relative strangers, and older people. In the United States the *First Name* is used with individuals whom we wish to consider or who wish to be considered by us as equals. The practice of addressing people by their first names may be disconcerting to individuals from other cultures where distance and politeness through last name usage is the norm, until mutual intimacy or "in-groupness" has been established. R. T. Bell writes:

> Modern English forces a less obvious set of choices than T/V on the speaker. *'You'* no longer being a marker of status, the alternatives appear to be *Title + First Name, Title + Surname or Title + Last Name.* (1968, p. 349)

The forms of address: *formal pronoun + Title + Last Name* or *informal pronoun + First Name* are quite common in the languages having the t/v distinction. In French one can address a person with *vous* + Monsieur, Madame, Mademoiselle without using the last name. In many languages the polite forms of address are accompanied by a change in register. In the Romance, Slavic, and some Far Eastern languages—the longer the statement—the more polite it is perceived to be.

Changes in forms of address reflect changes in personal relations. In English, employers may address an employee by his or her first name rather than the last because they know or like him or her. The employer-employee relationship has not changed, the distance has. This process is similar to switching to *tu*+ First Name in the languages which have the *tu/vous* distinction.

The study of the use of names and titles is somewhat complicated by the existence of exotic naming practices and elaborate title systems in a number of societies. Geertz (1973) writes:

> In Bali, there are six sorts of labels which one person can apply to another in order to identify him as a unique individual...: (1) personal names; (2) birth order names; (3) kinship terms; (4) teknonyms; (5) status titles (usually called "caste names" in the literature on Bali); and (6) public titles, by which I mean quasi-occupational titles borne by chiefs, rulers, priests, and gods. (p. 103)

Further, Levinson observes:

> 'Lord' is more or less reserved for landed members of the high castes, while *'caami'* 'Lord,' is reserved by high caste members for Brahmans and gods. (p. 471)

The choice of one or a combination of forms of address is used to denote the relative solidarity or politeness between the speakers. According to Geertz (1973), in Bali, *status titles* are used to express a degree of cultural superiority or inferiority so that the population is sorted out into a set of uniformly graded castes (p. 106). The status title system is spiritual in nature and, in this respect, it resembles the *Varna title* *system*, borrowed from India, which shows the order of social command.

These two title systems differ from the *public title system* that discriminates among individuals on the basis of their public responsibilities. Thus a system of social and spiritual inequality in Bali is established on a variety of levels in which the expression of respect and deference to certain individuals are required. The forms of address in a Tamil village indicate the authority of the recipient. Thus, the title *esamaanka* 'Lord,' is more or less reserved for landed members of the high castes, while *caami* 'Lord,' is reserved by high caste members for Brahmans and gods (Levinson, 1977). The system is similar to the one of Gonjaland, Ghana, described by Goody (1972, p. 51). Although this seems exotic on the surface there appears to be a similarity in Western civilizations in the relationship between the bourgeoisie, the nobility, and royalty.

Evans-Pritchard (1964) states that exotic and sociolinguistically intriguing are the naming practices among the Nilotic Nuer of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. According to the author, every Nuer has two personal or birth names: a paternal and a maternal one. In addition he or she inherits the honorific or praise name of his or her clan that is reserved for formal occasions.

Moreover, Evans-Pritchard (1964) writes that the Nuer have ox-names also by which they are called at home. Men of the same age use ox-names reciprocally. The deferential address to older men is *gwa* 'father,' with *gatda* 'son' in response. Elderly men often receive the address *gat*, 'son of,' followed by their father's name. This, and *gwa* 'father,' would be the correct form of address of young men to their seniors. Patronymics are supposed to be used by the father's family, teknonyms to be the correct form of addressing in-laws, etc.

This is reminiscent of the intricacy of distribution of taboos and euphemisms around the world, whereby one avoids calling people directly by their names. There are various reasons for using taboos and euphemisms: superstition, the perception of an individual as being important only in terms of group or family membership, or the need of society to control the individual. Is the Nuer naming system very different from ours? It appears that we can find parallels between the naming practices in the Nuer society and those in Western civilizations. Our first name reminds one of the Nuer birth name given by the father's family and our middle name—of the birth name given by the mother's clan.

Patronymics exist in the Slavic languages, teknonymous usage is common in a number of European languages although it may be considered outdated, dialectal or strictly spiritual, e.g., the word 'father' is used to address priests, as well. In the Spanish-speaking world, there are two family names—the one immediately following the middle name comes from the father and the one after it, is the family name of the mother. This use of family names appears to be similar to the use of honorific or praise names of the Nuer. The only exotic feature in the Nuer naming practices is the use of ox names. Even they are not foreign to us since they resemble our nicknames. Therefore, title use in Bali, in a Tamil village, in Ghana or among the Nilotic Nuer is not that different from title use in London, Paris, Rome, or the Vatican. Not much is new under the sun...

Honorifics

There are three types of honorifics. *Addressee honorifics* express respect for the addressee, while *referent honorifics* convey a message of respect with reference only to things or individuals. According to Comrie (1979) *bystander honorifics* take into consideration the presence of listeners. Dixon (1970) points out that the latter are found in the system of Dyirbal, an Australian aboriginal language which has a special code used when *taboo relatives*, such as the speaker's mother-in-law, are present.

The distribution of the various kinds of honorifics in the world's languages is found to be uneven. *Verbal addressee honorifics*, relatively rare, are quite elaborate in Japanese, Javanese, Madurese, Korean, etc.; *nonverbal addressee honorifics* are more common. For example, in the Mayan language Tzeltal, a sustained falsetto expresses deference to the addressee (Brown & Levinson, 1979). *Referent honorifics* are almost universal. They include names, titles and the *tu/vous* system. They are normally used for polite reference to the addressee.

In a Javanese case reported by Geertz (1960), the language provides three levels of addressee honorifics and there are six combinations of the above, resulting in six linguistic varieties. Thus, in accordance with Geertz' labels the aristocracy levels are 3, 3a, 1b and 1; the townsmen levels - 3a, 3, 2, 1a and 1; the peasantry levels - 2a, 1a, 1b and 1. Only certain combinations of these levels are possible and their respective occurrence signals the distance and power relationship of the speakers. This looks complicated at first glance. Let us compare it with British English. The proper form of address to the Queen of England would be different from the address used to the London greengrocer which in turn would differ from the address to a Highlands shepherd. Then, if we consider all the varieties of English around the world, and all the levels of these varieties, the Javanese system comes across as rather simple and straightforward, does it not?

Greetings may function as honorifics in that they can be indicators of the power relationship among the speakers. Thus, in the greeting system the Wolof of Senegal (Irvine, 1975), the one who initiates the greeting has a lower status. Irvine also notes that the more elaborate the greeting, the politer it is considered to be. Researchers of a number of Indo-European languages report a positive correlation between the length of the greeting and the deference expressed.

Japanese and Korean are well known for the intricacy of their honorifics. These languages force a choice of speech levels on the interlocutors. Japanese differentiates among three types of style—*plain, polite, or deferential*: and three types of expressions—*humble, neutral, or exalted* (Martin, 1964).

Japanese also has a system of *humble and exalted verbs* and 20-30 *euphemistic verbs* alongside their humble or exalted synonyms. The latter are reserved, perhaps, for situations that call for caution and neutrality.

In Korean there are no humble forms, but there are six styles of address as opposed to only three in Japanese. In Korean *in-group address* consists of three styles: plain, intimate, and familiar. *Out-group address* on the other hand consists of polite, authoritative, and deferential styles. There seems to be an analogy between "out-group address" in Korean, polite and deferential address in Japanese, and the use of the *vous* pronoun in the Indo-European languages.

The Japanese formulas of politeness include, but are not restricted to, the use of the standard language rather than a dialect, negative expressions of the "wouldn't you like to..." type, the length of the utterance, the inclusion in the utterance of Chinese loan words, etc. A very important characteristic of the Japanese culture is the *humility principle*. The Japanese respond to compliments with humble remarks about their possessions and belongings. This custom is grounded in the practice of "indirectness" The deeper the humility, the stronger the feelings of pride and gratitude (Makino, 1988).

Honorifics place a distance among individuals. However, politeness is highly valued in the Far East and in this respect it may be held in as much esteem as refinement, class and sophistication in the West, correlating positively with self-image and self-respect.

The Ambiguous Nature of Politness

If politeness is ambiguous, how is its ambiguous nature reflected in the languages around the world?

According to Smith-Hefner (1988) in Java, the potentially coercive or political power of politeness seems related to the double function of the polite codes themselves. These codes may be used to express both deference and humility on the one hand, or status, power and refinement, on the other.

This is probably the heart of the matter. The very ambiguity in the sociolinguistic message seems to render it powerful, since humility, a valued asset in many societies, in certain contexts, merely expresses humbleness, but in others—distance and control.

The ambiguous nature of politeness is reflected in the linguistic realities of French. According to Duloup (1970), the "savoir vivre" in France requires that one show deference to interlocutors of a different age group, sex and social status by using a myriad of polite formulas. The French "art of living" based upon the "aristocratic principle" requires that all members of any social or professional group be convinced of the superiority of their calling, cling to their particular jargon, and delight in holding one another in contempt. Duloup claims that the French tend to imitate their social superiors, snub their social inferiors and they do it very elegantly and politely. Maybe politeness is the reverse side of snobbishness.

Conclusion

Languages around the world employ different means to express the notions of formality or politeness. From the choice of *tu/vous* to the most exotic systems of naming and title-giving to the use of exalted expressions and honorifics, the purpose of the linguistic means is the same: to dispose the listener in one's favor by putting him/her at ease, on the one hand, or to assert one's power and status, on the other.

The Western students of Far Eastern languages and civilizations may be overwhelmed by the existence of style levels, in-group and out-group forms of address and honorifics. Rather than being discouraged by the intricacy of foreign linguistic systems, they may ask themselves the following questions: don't we, the speakers of Indo-European languages, accomplish the same tasks through register selection? Don't we adapt our conversational style to the setting? Isn't the flowery formal style of some African varieties of French reminiscent of the exalted expressions in Japanese? Negative expressions of politeness such as "you wouldn't happen to know, would you?" abound in English. The standard variety of any Western language is perceived more polite than a dialect, as is the case in Japanese. The speakers of Japanese use Chinese words to render their message polite. The speakers of English reserve nominal style interspersed with borrowings from Latin for public speaking in sophisticated and formal settings. As in the Far East, in many countries around the world humility is valued. In one form or another, humility is frequently present in response to compliments by downplaying the object of the compliment.

The choice of vocabulary is quite important: taboos and euphemisms exist in many societies. They abound in the American culture, as well. H. D. Brown points out that we call toilets, "restrooms;" bars, "lounges;" slums, "substandard dwellings;" and garbage men, "sanitation engineers" (1987, p. 115). Our substitution of taboos with euphemisms may accomplish what speech levels and honorifics accomplish in other languages.

Distance, politeness, deference, self-effacement, formality, restraint and reserve are similar—all are linked to the basic idea of inequality among people, actual or perceived. In different cultures there are various linguistic expressions for the social reality.

The exploration of the basic similarities in the means of verbalizing politeness in our age of high technology, information, and communication may be of equal importance to the globe trotter, the scholar of exotic civilizations, or the student of a foreign language.

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Author

MARIA Z. FORD, French Coordinator, West European and Latin American School, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: foreign language education and academic counseling.

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Foreign Language Methodology in the Caribbean: A Historical Survey

Jeannette Allsopp
Erdiston Teachers' College

Introduction

The English-speaking Caribbean is composed of about 22 territories—from Belize in Central America to Guyana in the South. These territories all share a common historical past in that they were all under British imperial rule after Columbus opened the gateway to this "New World" to the Spaniards and, as a result, to the rest of Europe. After the Spanish monopoly of the region was gradually undermined by the Dutch, the French, and the British, it was the British who rapidly gained control over most of the Caribbean, thus shaping its linguistic destiny.

The major official languages of the Caribbean reflect the history of the region in that they are English, French, Spanish, and Dutch. The distribution of languages within the Caribbean relates entirely to political power. English gained the place of the major official language because the British succeeded in gaining control of most of the Caribbean. English is followed closely by Spanish, which is the language most spoken after English. French is spoken to a much lesser extent, and Dutch minimally.

Foreign languages (FLs) form part of the core curriculum of secondary schools in the English-speaking Caribbean because of the need for Caribbean peoples to communicate freely with each other, as well as with non-English speaking people from abroad. They are also taught for the cultural enrichment that they can provide.

Foreign Language Teaching Methodologies in the Anglophone Caribbean

The FLs traditionally taught in the Anglophone Caribbean were Latin, French, and Spanish. Dutch was never a FL included in the curriculum. About 20 years ago, Latin was gradually phased out of the curriculum and French and Spanish became the only FLs taught in most schools. In Barbados, for example, there are some schools in which only Spanish is taught. There are also other schools in other Caribbean territories in which only Spanish is taught.

The methodology most widely used has been the grammar-translation method. However, with the changes undergone by most territories, there has been a slow shift to a more communicative methodology based on a notional-functional approach.

The Grammar-Translation Method

The grammar-translation method, which is still quite widely used, was adopted by all English-speaking Caribbean territories because of the strong English influence on the education system of the region. The use of this particular method reflects the history of the region in relation to its colonial experience. The Emancipation Act of 1834, passed by the British Government, led to the freedom of African slaves in the English-speaking Caribbean territories. During the post-Emancipation era, FLs were learned not for communication, but primarily for erudition. Indeed, Latin, and to a lesser extent, Greek, were studied because the study of classical subjects was considered to be highly prestigious. Education was generally considered to be the key to upward social mobility for the newly freed slaves, so that it is not surprising that all aspiring academically-minded students studied either one or the other, or both languages. Since the best schools in all territories of the English-speaking Caribbean were grammar schools, patterned after the English schools, their curricula were largely faithful replicas of the English grammar school curriculum, and Latin had pride of place.

After Latin, the next most widely taught language was French that was universally accepted as the language of culture and refinement. Latin and Greek carried with them their own prestige, both in the education system and in the wider society, as has been pointed out. Spanish was added to the list after Latin and French. Indeed, the education system of the region was geared to the needs of the more privileged minority who could afford secondary education and therefore to the academic as opposed to the vocational.

The grammar-translation method lent itself most conveniently to the study of Latin and French, which were not spoken but read and written. The language examinations taken by students in the English-speaking Caribbean were identical to those of the English education system. In the English system there was, for a considerable time, no oral examination in FLs. Emphasis was placed solely on reading and writing skills.

The examinations administered to high school students in the English-speaking Caribbean in the early decades of the 20th century were the Junior Cambridge Examination for 14-year-old students and the Senior Cambridge Examination for 16-year-old students; both were administered by the examining board of Cambridge University in England. There was also the London Higher Certificate for students of 18 years and over, administered by the examining board of the University of London in England. The Junior and Senior Cambridge and the London Higher Certificate examinations were the tests used to measure the academic levels attained by students at secondary level. The legal school-leaving age was 14. Any student with a Junior Cambridge Certificate could get a job, either as a young teaching assistant, or elsewhere in the public service. Academically inclined students usually continued secondary school to take the Senior Cambridge Examinations, and left school at 16, fully eligible for the job market. The students who were considered academically superior, and whose parents could afford school fees if their children had not won government scholarships on entry into secondary school, were usually the ones who remained in school to take the London Higher Certificate examination. This Certificate guaranteed the students matriculation for entry into British universities.

Subsequently, such examinations were reviewed to select the best students in Britain for the universities in their own country. The schools that offered such examinations in the English-speaking Caribbean were considered to be the better schools and catered to the academic elite, rather than to the great majority of students.

The Direct Method

The event that impacted most significantly on FL teaching methodology in the English-speaking Caribbean was the Second World War, as it did in Britain, the United States, and Europe generally. The changes in FL methodology that had come about in 19th century Europe resulted chiefly because of the increase in trade between European countries. Out of this increasing contact was born the need to communicate orally with other European countries that resulted in the Reform Movement (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, pp. 7-8) in language teaching and finally, the direct method (1986, p. 9). As a group of British colonies, the territories of the English-speaking Caribbean had contact primarily with the British via trade and administration and did not need to speak other European languages in order to survive. Therefore, the need to communicate with other European countries besides Britain would have had no effect on the FL teaching methodology of the English-speaking Caribbean.

Furthermore, there were no universities in the region and few members of the society were able to afford to send their children to pursue higher study overseas. Consequently, there were no teachers skilled enough to teach foreign languages in the native tongue as the direct method demanded. Indeed, even in England, the direct method failed largely because the teaching staff was "unequal to the task." (Rowlinson, 1985, p. 27)

In addition, the devastating experience of the First World War created a tendency to look inward rather than outward on the part of the British. Language teaching and learning reflected this tendency and language was looked on as abstract rather than as a communicative tool. The British were forced to reflect on their own national position vis-à-vis the rest of Europe. That reflection led to the British re-asserting their position as the major imperial power in the world during the 1920s. Language became an indicator of national pride rather than a tool of communication. English was the language that held sway because Britain was the most powerful nation in the world. Such an attitude would certainly have filtered down to the Caribbean since the grammar schools were staffed largely by British teachers sent out to teach in the colonies before most of the English-speaking Caribbean territories gained their independence during the sixties and seventies of the twentieth century.

New Oral Approaches

It was not until World War II that the breakthrough in the approach to FL teaching methodology came, via the American experience, of need to learn new languages after entering the War. American soldiers and marines could no longer take it for granted that their enemies would necessarily either speak or understand English. Knowledge of FLs could mean life or death, as understanding the enemy could make the difference between survival or extinction.

Similarly, after World War II Britain adopted a new approach to the study of FLs. Britain found that to rebuild herself, she had to depend more and more on European labor or other foreign labor. Furthermore, vast numbers of European refugees, fleeing the ravages wrought by the Nazis, poured into Britain of that era. Consequently, Post-War Britain then had to look outward instead of inward.

Prior to World War II, FL teaching methodology in Britain had gone from the grammar-translation method in the 19th century to the direct method in the early 20th century and then to the oral approach around the 1920s and 30s. (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). During and after the war, the development of new technology facilitated the rapid learning of languages. Records in the foreign language could be played to students in schools, for example. More emphasis was placed on the spoken word. The IPA script developed by the International Phonetic Association in the late 19th century, during the reaction against the grammar-translation method, was more widely used to represent the sounds of languages other than English. This development gradually began to impact on the English-speaking Caribbean. Students were taught to pronounce first the sounds and then larger chunks of the French language in the form of phrases and sentences. Spanish was not widely taught in schools in the English-speaking Caribbean until the mid-1950s and onward, and the teaching of Spanish reflected the change in methodology referred to above. The English-speaking Caribbean benefited significantly from the innovations in FL methodology.

By the 1950s, the examination of the 14-year-old students and older was abandoned and the Senior Cambridge of the same age group was replaced by the General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level Examination while the London Higher Certificate Examination became the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level Examination for the 18-year-old students and older. The GCE 'O' Level for 16-year-old students and older, as it was popularly called, consisted of two different examinations, one administered by a joint examining board of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge and the other administered by the examining board of the University of London. The GCE 'A' Level examination for 18-year-old students and older was administered by the University of London. At present, the GCE 'A' Level Examination generally taken by Caribbean students region wide is the Cambridge 'A' Level Examination, administered by the University of Cambridge.

With the change in the British examinations, oral examinations in FLs were introduced and consequently, some changes came about in the methodology used in the teaching of French and Spanish in the Caribbean. The method was still largely the grammar-translation method, but students were taught to say the alphabet of the foreign language or languages being studied and to read aloud. A very limited amount of conversation was undertaken, usually just before the examination.

As Caribbean society developed and most British-ruled Caribbean territories became independent from Britain during the sixties and the seventies, many territories began to develop tourism as a major industry. This was the case particularly in the smaller territories with few natural resources, such as Barbados, Antigua, and St. Lucia. Some of the larger, better endowed territories like Jamaica and Trinidad also developed tourism as a major industry. Foreign languages were now seen as instruments of communication, rather than as merely academic subjects.

However, despite the move towards tourism and the need for *oral communication* in languages other than English, the education and examination systems bequeathed to the territories of the English-speaking Caribbean by their colonial masters remained the same. The fact that the economic existence of formerly British Caribbean territories depends largely on the revenue-earning capacity of tourism is one very compelling reason for members of Caribbean society to be able to communicate effectively in more than one language. The other reason is that there is currently a strong inter-Caribbean integration thrust which aims to bring the entire Caribbean together via the newly formed Association of Caribbean States. The three major official languages of the Caribbean: English, French, and Spanish all have official status in the Association of Caribbean States.

Notwithstanding such pertinent developments, even the Caribbean Examinations Council, which was set up in the late seventies to cater to the needs of Caribbean society, originally retained FL examinations in Spanish and French that were highly academic in scope and content and concentrated largely on the written production of these languages rather than the oral. Ongoing changes in, and reviews of the Foreign Language Syllabus of the Caribbean Examinations Council, including a major change in 1989-90, have still not produced a FL curriculum geared to foster meaningful oral communication. Three out of the four parts of the examinations in French and Spanish are devoted exclusively to written work and only one to oral communication. The oral examination is however designed to deal with certain basic information about the speaker; nevertheless, students who are successful in the Caribbean for 16-year-old and older are not proficient in speaking the languages tested.

Although there is nothing inherently wrong with a purely academically oriented examination, in the English-speaking Caribbean such an examination is geared only to a small minority. There must be an academic-type examination, but an alternative proficiency-based examination must also be put in place for the great majority of English-speaking Caribbean students. The immediate needs of the region require that a wide cross-section of the population be basically proficient in at least one foreign language.

Nevertheless, a number of FL teaching institutions outside the school system exist which encourage a communicative approach. The Alliance Française, the Venezuelan Institutes for Culture and Cooperation, the national "schools of languages" in the various territories, and the national "language centers" and institutes are some examples.

Over the years, a number of initiatives intended to bring about closer cooperation between the countries of the English-speaking Caribbean and their non-English-speaking neighbors have been undertaken. One such initiative is the UN/ECLAC Project, called the *Removal of Language Barriers in the Caribbean,* which has been in existence for about the last fifteen years. This project is committed to, and has been working towards achieving linguistic harmony between the English-speaking and the non-English-speaking territories of the Caribbean region by seeking to develop national language institutes in the various territories, to promote intra-territorial exchanges, and to pursue programs of cooperation between English and non-English speaking Caribbean territories.

The Language Situation in the English-Speaking Caribbean

As history shows, the official languages in the Caribbean have arisen out of colonial domination of peoples of the region. These peoples inherited the languages of their colonial masters. This is equally true in all territories of the Caribbean, whether they are English-speaking, French-speaking, Spanish-speaking, or Dutch-speaking. However, so far only the standard or official varieties of these languages have been considered. When we refer to the official languages of the Caribbean, we refer to the internationally accepted and understood metropolitan varieties of these languages. Throughout the Caribbean, there also exist very strong and deep-rooted non-standard varieties, which reflect even more strikingly the history of the Caribbean region as a whole, thus distinguishing Caribbean language and culture from any other.

Reference has already been made to Columbus and the consequences of his stumbling into what is called the New World. That event marked the beginning of Caribbean history and the creation of a "New World;" 'new' only to the Europeans.

The language situation of the Caribbean developed out of the settlement history of the region. The native population, unable to withstand the onslaught of the Europeans who brought with them strange diseases, strange animals, and gunpowder, dwindled very rapidly in the first fifty years following the colonization of the Caribbean. The Europeans had to recruit European indentured labor to cultivate tobacco that was the main crop at the time. When tobacco replaced sugar as the main crop, a much larger work force was needed.

The "Sugar Revolution" was the single historical event that occasioned the rise of the Triangular Atlantic Slave Trade. The Trade brought millions of West African slaves to the Caribbean. Consequently, a dimension was introduced which made the Caribbean linguistically unique: The slaves' native languages merged with the European masters' languages to form fascinating new varieties called "pidgins" that later developed into "creoles."

In the English-speaking Caribbean, pidgins were the first non-standard varieties to develop in the various territories. A *pidgin* is a contact vernacular and not a natural language. It is a lingua franca, a reduced language that results from extended contact between groups of people with no language in common. A pidgin evolves when groups of people need some means of spoken communication, very often primarily for trade. No group learns the language of the other group for social reasons that may stem from mutual lack of trust or close social contact. (Holm, 1988, p. 5)

After some time, the pidgins referred to above evolved into "creoles," a linguistic development that resulted from life on the sugar plantations. A *creole* is a pidgin that is adopted by an entire speech community and spoken as a native language by that community, including the children. Usually the ancestors of the members of such a community were displaced geographically so that their ties with their native language and culture were partly broken. The creole usually extends or expands to involve the entire culture of the community in which it is spoken. The word *creole* comes from the Spanish word "criollo" that originally meant "a person of European descent born in America." The meaning was gradually extended to include "all people from other countries born in America." Finally, it came to be applied to the non-standard varieties spoken by the mass of non-European peoples of the Caribbean, forged out of the enforced contact situation between European masters and African slaves.

In the English-speaking Caribbean, the standard varieties of British English were introduced by the sugar plantation owners. The combination of standard varieties used by the plantation owners became the official language in the English-speaking Caribbean. This English was of course influenced by geographical characteristics and accompanying historical factors peculiar to the various territories. This standard co-existed side by side with the non-standard varieties formed out of the contact between the mass of African slaves and their masters.

Consequently, the language situation in the Caribbean is generally one of *diglossia***.** Diglossia is a linguistic phenomenon in which the standard variety, or Internationally Accepted English, as it has been called by Caribbean linguists, is spoken only by the upper classes of the society. Speaking the standard language is considered more prestigious than speaking the non-standard varieties usually spoken by the mass of the people, and therefore regarded as of low prestige. The standard varieties were originally associated with members of the planter class; these members were largely from well-to-do upper class or upper middle-class English families of the highest social status in the newly-settled colonies. The non-standard varieties were associated with the slaves.

Today in the Caribbean, creoles have been gradually approximating to the standard. As De Camp (1971) puts it, when two samples of speech exist which differ substantially from one another, it is usually possible to find a third intermediate level in an additional sample. This phenomenon is known as the **post-creole continuum** which is, in effect, a graded scale showing the two differing extremes at each end while the middle level of the continum contains a number of intermediate varieties. A diagrammatic representation of the language varieties in the continuum is seen in Figure 1. The standard, high-prestige varieties of English spoken in the Caribbean, and termed the *acrolect* are found on the left of the scale. Intermediate varieties between the standard and non-standard varieties of English are found in the middle of the scale and termed the *mesolect*. Extre[illegible] non-standard varieties which are of the lowest prestige and termed the *basilect* are found on the right of the scale.

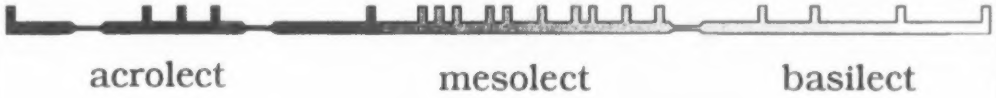

FIGURE 1. **Post-creole Continuum**

Examples of this type of continuum can be seen in Guyana, for example, where the range is from a variety of English virtually indistinguishable from metropolitan standard English to extreme varieties of Creole English. A similar situation exists in Jamaica. These can, however, be contrasted with the language situation in Barbados, for example, where the creole has developed along the post-creole continuum into a mesolectal variety or non-standard dialect that is very close to the standard and which causes its own peculiar types of problems, as will be illustrated later. The same type of linguistic development exists in Trinidad.

Despite the decreolization process taking place in Caribbean English generally, there are a number of characteristic features of creoles, which have left their mark on the varieties of English spoken in the Caribbean and which cause a particular type of non-standard dialectal interference both in the L1 and L2 of Caribbean English speakers. Such interference manifests itself at all the four linguistic levels of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

Characteristics of Creole English

Creole English possesses a number of features that distinguish it from the more developed non-standard varieties of Caribbean English. These are as follows:

(1) Reduction of final consonant(s) clusters involving a voiced or voiceless stop consonant such as /t/ or /d/, e.g., best > [b∊s], most > [mo:s], last > [la:s], rest > [r∊s], round > [raun], find > [faIn], pound > [p∧ŋ] by apocope.
(2) ϕ pluralization, e.g., *two boy*, *six tin*, *three knife*, *four book*, *ten dallah* (ten dollars), *five cent*, etc.
(3) Various phonological changes, e.g., /Θ/ > /t/ /б/ > /d/, /Θ/ > /f/. Bath > [ba:t], [ba:f], thing >[tIŋ], thin > [tIn], thanks > [tanks]. Bathe > [be:d], there > [de:r], then > [d∊n], this > [dIs].
(4) Loss of word-initial, weakly-stressed syllabus by aphesis, e.g.,

enough > 'nuff or because > cause.

(5) Front-focusing, e.g., *Is gone, 'e gone*? (Has he really gone?) *Is sick she sick.* (She's really ill.) *Is fall it fall.* (It fell down just like that.)

(6) Serial verb constructions, e.g., carry-go-bring-come.
Come bring it in. Go come bring it nuh?

(7) Palatalization or labialization of initial voiced or voiceless stop consonants such as /k/ > /ky/ /g/ > /gy//z/ > /ʃj/ /b/ > /bw/. Can't > [kyan], car > [kyar], skirt > [skyʌrt], gas > [gya:s], garden > [gyardn], guard > [gya:(r)d], pleasure > [plεjə], measure > [mεjə], boy > [bwai].

(8) ϕ tense-marking, e.g., *'E bring it yesterday. She see it de nex day. Dey buy it las' year.*

(9) Switching between objective and subjective case. *Me see she pon de road. 'E gi she two cuff. Him/'Im don' get up (h)early.*

The non-standard speech of many Caribbean people usually contains at least one or more of these features even in cases where decreolization has taken place. Some of the features listed above also occur in standard Caribbean varieties. Indeed, traditionally, most members of Caribbean society are bi-dialectal. In the past, many individuals mastered two almost mutually exclusive dialects, one standard and one non-standard. They were very capable of switching codes to suit the appropriate social context. The unwritten rule was, "Never write as you speak," and this was observed by most members of the school population at both primary and secondary level.

However, as Caribbean society evolved and the majority of English-speaking Caribbean territories became independent, there was an affirmation of *Caribbeanness* through language. One school of thought favored the idea of asserting national identity through the use of the non-standard varieties of Caribbean English. Another promoted use of the standard at all times. A third, which is most widely accepted, posited that, to suit appropriate social contexts, an individual should be fully capable of switching codes.

Nevertheless, with the blurring of social class divisions in English-speaking Caribbean territories, there came a more relaxed attitude to language that has allowed many children to write as they speak without regard for appropriateness of code. Most Caribbean English speakers use a non-standard variety in all informal contexts, or at least elements of that variety. Even the middle class that is comprised of university and college graduates, professionals, and high-ranking government officials, tends not to use only the standard variety of their particular territory.

Consequently, one of the greatest problems in the teaching of foreign languages in the English-speaking Caribbean stem from standard English interference on the one hand and non-standard dialectal or creole interference on the other.

Common Errors Found in French and Spanish in the Work of English-Speaking Caribbean Students

No FL teacher in the Anglophone Caribbean should be unaware of the current language situation in the region or of its evolution. Unfortunately, however, the great majority of FL teachers are either unaware of the situation described above, or fail to relate it to the problems experienced in teaching a foreign language. The teachers are much more inclined to recognize and acknowledge Standard English interference.

Consequently, FL teaching methodology used in the Anglophone Caribbean does not take account of the problems of creole or non-standard dialectal interference that occur at all four linguistic levels. As outlined previously, the 16+ examination requirements are heavily weighted in favor of the more academically gifted student who controls Standard English well, because he or she is usually from the middle or upper middle classes.

The examination of 16-year-old students and older demands a fairly high level of linguistic competence on the part of the FL student. Thus, the most effective foreign language teaching method is the grammar-translation method, which equips students with the knowledge of the structural rules. However, most students are not linguistically competent in either French or Spanish because the morphosyntactic structure of both languages requires an understanding of the basic structure of Standard English. An example of the characteristics of Creole English has already been given. Standard English structure is no longer taught in schools. The students' lack of knowledge of the structure of English is compounded by the fact that the structure of the non-standard varieties or creoles spoken by the great majority of students is quite different from that of French and Spanish. Note, for example, that, there is no pluralization, a feature essential in any foreign language but not found in non-standard or Creole speech. Note also that there is also no tense marking, for example, a feature that causes major difficulty in the teaching of tenses in French or Spanish.

The following sample of errors will illustrate some of the problems faced by FL teachers in the English-speaking Caribbean.

Phonological

FRENCH

Standard English Interference

(1) Failure to observe liaison as in the following examples

Les_hommes sont_assis_à_la_table.
Les/ hommes/ sont/ assis/ à/ la/ table.
Où_est-ce_que tu_habites?
Où/ est-ce/ que/ tu/ habites?
François va_au_marché_avec maman.
François/ va/ au/ marché/ avec/ maman.

Tout_ce_que j'ai_ici_est_très bon.
Tout/ ce/ que/ j'ai/ ici/ est/ très/ bon.

(2) Voicing of unvoiced final consonants, e.g., son*t*, po*t*, mo*t*, so*t* (voicing of /t/, homme*s* (voicing of /s/), gâteau*x*, heureu*x* (voicing of /x/, marche*z*, chante*z*, ave*z* (voicing of /z/), tro*p*, beacou*p*, cham*p* (voicing of /p/).
(3) Incapacity to produce French /r/ that is often pronounced with vibrant articulation and not gutturally as it should be. rouge [*r*už], jouer [žue*r*], pour [pu*r*}, sur [su:*r*], reposer [*r*ipozer], rare [*r*a:*r*].

Non-Standard/Creole Interference

(1) Palatalizing of French /j/ as in *je* that is pronounced like the English /j/ [ǰ] in *judge*. J'aime [ǰ∈m], jardin [ǰardin], rouge [ru:ǰ], suggérer [suǰere], geste [ǰ∈st], plage [plaǰ], image, [imaǰ]
(2) Incorrect pronunciation of vowels, e.g., French /e/ that is often pronounced as English /e/ in *eat*. Regarde [r*i*gyard], revoir [r*i*vwar], revenir [r*i*v∈nir], cela [c*i*la] retourne, [r*i*tu:rn], messieurs [m*i*sy r(s)].

SPANISH

Standard English Interference

(1) Incorrect pronunciation of Spanish /y/, /ll/ and /h/. The /h/ is pronounced, hace > [*h*ase], hasta > [*h*asta], hacia > [*h*asiya], hijo > [*h*iho], ahora [a*h*ora]; the /y/ is pronounced like /i/, familia > [familya], hacia > [asiya], and the /ll/ is pronounced like single English /l/, silla > [si*l*a], villa > [vi*l*a], ella > [e*l*a], malla > [ma*l*a].
(2) Incorrect pronunciation of vowels, e.g., Spanish /a/ is often pronounced like English /a/, helado > [el*e*do], pida > [pid*e*], jamón > [hemon], mira > [mir*e*], cita > [sit*e*]
(3) Failure to observe liaison as in French.

Los_hombres_no_han_ido_a_la_playa.
Los/ hombres/ no/ han/ ido/ a/ la/ playa.
La_madre_de_Elena_es_una_mujer muy_hermosa.
La/ madre/ de/ Elena/ es/ una/ mujer/ muy/ hermosa.
¿Dónde_está_el pijama_azul?
¿Dónde/ está/ el/ pijama/ azul?

Non-Standard/Creole Interference

(1) Incorrect pronunciation of vowels, e.g., Spanish /e/ is often pro-

nounced like English /*i*/, pide > [pid*i*], cerrar > [s*i*rar], come > [kom*i*], me > [m*i*], le > [l*i*], se > [s*i*], de > [d*i*], lunes > [lun*i*s].
(2) Syllable reduction through the omission of word medial vowels by syncope, e.g., Spanish *lunes* becomes *luns, pares* becomes *pars, redes* becomes *reds*.
(3) The occurrence of intrusive consonants, e.g., Spanish *iglesia* becomes *inglesia* with an intrusive /n/,

Morphological

FRENCH

Standard English Interference

(1) Failure to interpret French sounds correctly in writing e.g., not adding final /s/ because it is not pronounced, e.g., *hommes* in the plural is often written without an /s/ because the French /s/ is silent. Similarly, *mains, maisons, garçons, femmes, filles, magasins, pommes*, are all often written without an /s/.
(2) Inability to reproduce final consonant clusters in French such as /tre/, /vre/ in words like French *quatre, livre, vivre, ivre, battre, mettre, prêtre, pauvre*.
(3) Failure to produce diphthongs correctly, e.g., the diphthong /au/ in words like *animaux, pauvre, crapaud, auprès, Auguste, mauvais* in which the French /au/ would be represented by English /o/.

Non-Standard/Creole Interference

(1) Inability to spell correctly in French, *mazon* for *maison, rezon* for *raison d'etre, garcon* for *garçon, gato* for *gâteau, manje* for *mange, uro* for *heureux, set* for *sept, pitit* for *petit*.
(2) Inability to distinguish between the spoken and written representation of final /x/ in words like *dix* where the /x/ would be written as /s/ or /z/ because of the way in which it is pronounced. Examples are as follows, *sis* for *six, swazant* for *soixante, swasant-dix* for *soixante-dix*.

SPANISH

Standard English Interference

(1) Double consonants being written for single consonants, e.g., Spanish clase being written as *classe, passar* for *pasar, massa* for *masa, missa* for *misa, messa* for *mesa*.
(2) Spanish /f/ being written as /ph/ e.g., Spanish *farmacia* being written as *pharmacia, philosophia* for *filosofía, phenómeno* for

fénomeno, phrase for *frase, parágrapho* for *parágrafo, photographia* for *fotografía.*
(3) The plural marker being added where it should not be, e.g., Spanish *las gentes* for *la gente.*

Non-Standard/Creole Interference

(1) No plural marker being added for a plural noun, e.g., Spanish *tres hijo* for *tres hijos* in the plural, *dos muchacho* for *dos muchachos, seis mansana* for *seis manzanas.*
(2) Faulty spelling because of the tendency to palatalization of initial stop consonants, e.g., Spanish *casa* being written as *kyasa* or *cyasa, gyato* for *gato, kyarta* for *carta, kyampo* for *campo, kyarro* for *carro, cyaro/kyaro* for *caro.*

Syntactic/Morphosyntactic

FRENCH
Standard English Interference

(1) Failure to understand the concept of the possessive in French, e.g., transferring the English Possessive form onto the French in the following: *Jean's stylo* instead of *le stylo de Jean, Marie's livre* instead of *le livre de Marie, Pierre's chaussures* instead of l*es chaussures de Pierre, Mme Thibaud's maison* instead of *la maison de Mme Thibaud.*
(2) Inability to grasp the concept of the partitive article in French, e.g., when to use *de* only and when to use *de la, du, de l', des. Il va acheter de viande* instead of *Il va acheter de la viande. Il ne mange pas de la confiture* instead of *Il ne mange pas de confiture. Il n'y en a pa's des autres* instead of *Il n'y en a pas d'autres. Il y a de sucre* instead of *Il y a du sucre. Il n'y a pas de l'eau* instead of *Il n'y a pas d'eau.*
(3) Inability to differentiate between the form of the continuous present tense and the basic form of the present tense in French, e.g., French *Je suis regardant* For I am looking instead of *Je regarde, Je suis passant* instead of *Je passe* or *Je suis faisant* instead of *Je suis en train de faire* or *Je fais.*

Non-Standard/Creole Interference

(1) Incorrect agreement of adjectives in both gender and number, e.g., French *les belles maisons* is written *les beau maison, les hommes*

grands is written *les homme grand, la petite fille* is written *la petit fille, l'eau froide*, is written *l'eau froid, les dames jolies* is written *la dame joli.*

(2) Incorrect subject and verb agreement, e.g., French *Ils marchent* is written *Ils marches, Elles aiment* is written *Elles aimes, Les amis vont* is written *Les amis vas, Les filles donnent* is written *Les filles donnes.* There is also the reverse in which a singular subject is written with a plural verb, as in the following examples, *La règle sont sur la table* for *La règle est sur la table. Il donnent le stylo à son ami* for *Il donne le stylo à son ami.*

(3) Rendering of habitual aspect in French *Il va à l'école tous les jours* done by transfer of Caribbean English dialectal structure *He does go to school every day* where *does* expresses habitual aspect in Caribbean non-standard English. French rendering would be *Il fait aller a lécole tous les jour.* Other examples are *He does come here a lot*, the French rendering of which *Il fait venir ici boco* instead of *Il vient ici souvent. She does give me the book/ Shi doz gi me di book*, the French rendering of which would be *Elle fait donne me le liv/ Elle fait donne me le liv(re).*

SPANISH

Standard English Interference

(1) Failure to understand the concept of the possessive structure in Spanish by transferring the Standard English possessive structure to Spanish, e.g., *María's libro* for Mary's book instead of *el libro de María, Pedro's bolígrafo* instead of *el bolígrafo de Pedro, Ana's falda* instead of *la falda de Ana, Paco's casa* instead of *la casa de Paco, la Sra Pérez's vestido* instead of *el vestido de la Sra Pérez.*

(2) Inability to comprehend the way in which direct and indirect object pronouns are used, their position in the sentence and their gender and number in relation to the nouns they replace. For example the correct Spanish sentence *Me dio el libro* might be written as *Dio me el libro*, or if *el libro* is replaced by the direct object pronoun *lo*, a student, following the sentence pattern of Standard English very literally, might write *Dio lo me.* Similarly, the correct Spanish sentence *María le escribió una carta a su amiga* might be written *María escribió le una carta a su amiga.* If *una carta* is replaced by a direct object pronun, then a student might write *María escribió la a su amiga.*

(3) Inability to use reflexive verbs with the correct form of the reflexive pronoun to represent the subject. The correct Spanish sentence *Me baño a las siete* is usually written as *Se baño a las siete*

with no corresponding change in the reflexive pronoun to represent the subject. Other examples are: *¿Se cepillaste el pelo?* for *¿Te cepillaste el pelo? Se vestimos temprano cada día* for *Nos vestimos temprano cada día. Se pongo el pantalón* for *Me pongo el pantalón.*

Non-Standard Dialectal/Creole Interference

(1) Incorrect noun and adjective agreement in gender and number e.g., Spanish *una casa blanca* is often written as *un blanco casa, una mesa redonda* as *un redondo mesa, el tercer libro* as *el tercero libro, el primer día* as *el día primero.*
(2) Inability to understand the possessive structure in Spanish. Transfer of Caribbean English dialectal structure to Spanish would result in *María madre* for Mary's Mother instead of *la madre de María, Juan bolígrafo* for *el bolígrafo de Juan, Pedro lapis* for *el lápiz de Pedro, la señora casa* for *la casa de la señora, el señor reloj for el reloj del señor.*

Semantic/Lexico-Semantic

FRENCH/SPANISH
Standard English Interference

(1) *Faux amis/amigos falsos* as in French *marcher* (to march), *large* (large), *rester* (to rest) and Spanish *sopa* (soap), *ropa* (rope), *grosería* (grocery), French/Spanish *librairie/librería* (library), Spanish *escala* (scale), French *sale* (sale), Spanish *grande* (grand, enjoyable).
(2) Literal translations in both French and Spanish for high-frequency structures, e.g., *Comment est-il* for French *Comment va-t-il?* and *Estoy/soy catorce años* for Spanish *Tengo catorce años, Il a* (It has) for French *Il y a, Je suis onze ans* for French *J'ai onze ans*, French *Je demande* for *I demand.*

Non-Standard/Creole Interference

(1) Inability to recognize cognates, e.g., French *la nation* and Spanish *la nación* for English *nation*, French *dentiste* and Spanish *dentista* for English *dentist*, French *la lampe* and Spanish *la lámpara* for English *lamp*.
(2) Tendency to very literal translation of words and sentences e.g., a Caribbean dialectal speaker would say *I/Ah bus' 'e [h]ead* in nonstandard Caribbean English that would be 'I burst his head' in Standard English. Here is one rendering in Spanish by a student *Yo autobus*

la cabeza, where the translation is so literal that dialectal *bus'* is translated by the Spanish word for a bus—*autobus.*
Another example of very literal translation of a sentence by a non-standard Barbadian speaker would be his rendering in non-standard Barbadian English of the sentence "I *don't* go home early every day." The speaker would say *Ah doz doan go home early every day.* The rendering in French, for example, would be *Je fais ne pas aller maison tous les jours.* In the non-standard variety of Barbadian English, the operator *does* is usually inserted in a negative sentence. It is then translated literally into either French or Spanish.

Having given a representative sample of the types of errors in both French and Spanish in the Caribbean indicates that there is a serious need to address the problems faced by both standard and non-standard speakers.

A Suggested Methodology for Teaching French and Spanish in the Caribbean

At the phonological level, there need to be a number of pronunciation exercises, short passages and dialogs containing the various types of sounds that should be practiced in class with the teacher as a model, put on audio-cassette so that the students can listen to them as often as possible. The passages should be based on topics taken from everyday life so that sound can be associated with meaning. Later, the students can work either on their own or in pairs in the language laboratory listening, repeating, and taking parts in the dialogs until they are as perfect as possible. The practice exercises recommended need only be done for a few minutes in class, and may simply be included as one of the activities of the French or Spanish lesson. They may also be done at the beginning of a class as a warm-up session, so as to reinforce or practice material covered in a previous lesson. Here the listening skill is crucial as a student cannot imitate effectively if he/she does not hear the sound(s) he/she is trying to master.

The procedure outlined applies to both Caribbean Standard English and Caribbean non-standard English speakers. Whereas Caribbean English has tonic stress, whether it is standard or non-standard, the metropolitan standard variety does not. In that case, there must be enough practice of intonation and pitch for the non-standard speaker learning French or Spanish to be able to imitate the rhythm of the target language as closely as possible.

This approach to solving the problem is an attempt to get the student to realize that language is made up of a series of such elements as phonemes, morphemes, phrases, clauses, sentences, etc. However, students also have to realize that they need to put together these elements to produce meaningful utterances of real communicative value in the target language(s). It is assumed that if the student masters the sounds and sound patterns of language, and is made to associate them with meaning, he/she will be able to understand how the language works and will be able to reproduce appropriate spoken language that will in turn lead to acceptable written language.

At the morphological level, the student needs both pronunciation and spelling exercises so that he/she can continue to associate sound with meaning and see how various types of morphemes—prefixes and suffixes—affect both the form and the meaning of words. The student also needs to associate the sounds with the written forms of the various words. There needs to be a certain amount of contrastive analysis to determine the concept of pluralization, for example. However in the case of non-standard Caribbean English speakers, there have to be exercises presenting first the corresponding Standard English form to non-standard structures and then the corresponding target language structure.

So far the solutions to the problems at the phonological and morphological levels have relied heavily on the listening and speaking skills. The syntactic or morphosyntactic and semantic skills will involve all the four skills, especially speaking, reading, and writing. Oral practice exercises may be used to reinforce the written forms presented in the form of sentences or passages at the syntactic level, since both oral and written production demand correct syntactic structures. Hearing the structure helps the student to fix it in his or her mind, particularly if it is produced within a certain context. Audiovisual material in the form of charts, posters, cartoons, videotapes or similar items should also be used, as well as specially produced multimedia television programs where possible.

As with the morphological levels, the Caribbean non-standard speaker will need to contrast the dialectal structure with that of Standard English before proceeding to the target language. The problems that arise because of non-standard interference are difficult to solve because, in many cases, the non-standard variety of Caribbean English is a mesolectal variety very close to the standard, and distinguishable only through pitch or stress. Compare, for example, this rendering of habitual aspect in non-standard Caribbean English by means of the operator *does* and the completely different function of *does* in Standard English as an emphasizer. For example,

> *Non-standard Caribbean English*-John *does* go deh every day.
> *Meaning*-John goes there every single day.
> *Standard English*-John *does* go to the football match sometimes.
> *Meaning*-It is a fact that John goes to the football match sometimes.

Here the operator *does* function as an emphasizer. The non-standard speaker would have to be told that he/she needs to say "John goes there every day." The adverb phrase of time "every day" is what indicates habitual aspect in the first example. It has to be pointed out that "goes" is the simple present tense, whether rendered in French or Spanish.

The FL teacher in the English-speaking Caribbean needs assistance in determining the syntactic class of many words and phrases in Caribbean English. Many of them are difficult to classify, and they create problems for the teacher of French or

Spanish who needs to understand and define the syntactic function of the word or phrase in a given sentence.

In the case of semantic/lexico-semantic problems, the greatest problem seems to be retention of vocabulary. Vocabulary is best taught in context using a cluster method of related words, phrases, and idioms in short passages and dialogs related to everyday activities. The material referred to should be accompanied by realia related to the topic, whether it centers on a classroom, a restaurant, or home. The classroom can also be made to simulate certain scenes, such as a scene at the airport, a scene in a store, or a scene at the theater. Creating such a context will serve as a mnemonic in itself in that there is likely to be a greater impact on the learner's consciousness when it comes to relating the lexical item to its referent in the real world. There will be a context in which to place the lexical item that will help the learner to fix them in his/her memory.

Another mnemonic may be getting the learner to do a contrastive analysis in relation to suffixes in the L1 and suffixes in the target language, e.g., the teacher can point out that words in French and Spanish ending in the suffix *-ion/ión* usually end in the standard English suffix *-ion*. *Faux amis/amigos falsos* in French and Spanish can be eliminated or reduced to a minimum by the learning or acquisition of vocabulary in context.

The importance of learning or acquiring vocabulary in context or of making contextual associations in the area of semantics is reflected in a number of thematic dictionaries that have been becoming increasingly popular in the field of lexicography. Such dictionaries should certainly be used as aids in FL teaching wherever possible.

Conclusion

As discussed here, the language situation in the Caribbean is a direct result of its settlement history, reflecting strongly the social and political divisions separating the colonial masters from the mass of the people, the majority of whom were formerly African slaves. The errors illustrated are encountered in most schools in the English-speaking Caribbean and are indicative of the language situation. An eclectic approach in foreign language methodology, based largely on natural and communicative approaches, and combined with some of the techniques of the direct method, should help to produce students who are basically proficient in either French or Spanish or both languages, whether they are standard or non-standard Caribbean English speakers.

Unfortunately, however, there is still a tendency, particularly in some of the more conservative territories like Barbados, to insist that Standard English is the only variety that is the linguistic patrimony of Caribbean people. Even teachers in the school system tend to evade the problem of the all-pervasive influence of the non-standard varieties. It is therefore an extremely difficult task to persuade many people that account must be taken of the non-standard varieties of the English-speaking Caribbean and their effects when teaching not only foreign languages, but also English. Additionally, many people do not realize that even when they are producing what they regard as flawless Standard English, it is punctuated by non-standard expressions. Furthermore, the suprasegmentals of pitch and stress are certainly not those of metropolitian British English, the vowels of Caribbean English are more open and less tense and so are the diphthongs.

Ignorance of the nature of Caribbean language is fostered even among the educated and professional classes because teacher-training in English and foreign languages in the English-speaking Caribbean has not traditionally taken account of the need to look at the linguistic phenomena underlying the problems encountered in language teaching generally in the Caribbean. There has been no attempt to study the language acquisition processes at work in both dialectal and Standard English interference, or to try to remedy problems encountered by applying contrastive or error analysis. Furthermore, there has certainly not been any attempt to try to work out a foreign language teaching methodology that would effectively combat the problems already outlined. This is certainly a deficiency that needs to be urgently addressed.

One of the surest ways to make English-speaking Caribbean students generally proficient in the major FLs of the Caribbean, is to adopt a new approach to the training of both English and FL teachers. They must be given the linguistic knowledge and insight with which to solve problems encountered. Their teaching methodology must be more proficiency-driven. In this way, overall Caribbean integration and meaningful inter-territorial communication can be achieved in all the relevant domains, for the language barriers that exist between the territories will then be permanently dismantled and all Caribbean people will be able to converse meaningfully with each other.

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Author

JEANNETTE ALLSOPP, Head, Department of Foreign Languages, Erdiston Teachers' College, Barbados. Specializations: foreign language teaching methodology, second-language acquisition, child-language acquisition research, multilingual lexicography, foreign language teacher training.

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Teaching Aspect in Beginning French Courses

James E. Blackburn
Coastal Carolina University

Most French students encounter verbal aspect in the first semester although it is one of the more sophisticated concepts. It may be during the third or fourth semesters that control of this problem is within the student's grasp. Contrasting the two aspects has long been one of the methods. In this article I propose that carefully chosen questions about contrasting pairs may lead to an earlier mastery.

The thousands of American university students who willingly matriculate through several semesters of foreign language courses and acquire some palpable, useful, polishing, serviceable, and enjoyable component of their academic formation are our comfort and our joy. What we do for them, whether traditionally elitist literature or contemporarily democratic communication, is well enough conceived and presented by a preponderant majority of practitioners. The ratio of effectiveness acquits honorably the tertiary level group of foreign language instructors, unless we are to be hanged for having a handful of incompetents among us. Not that there is no room for improvement of instructional quality nor that there is no imperative for a deeper and extended experience. I likewise shrink from intimating that the lesser, yet more numerous, undergraduate treks through some foreign language's basic vocabulary, basic grammar, bare phonetic structure, skimmed cultural awareness, are a neglected area. Au contraire! But I might entertain the possibility that the success that we can allege or document is thin. What confounds me is the high probability that the problem under consideration here involves persons of much talent, good will, great ambition, high ideals, and determination, both those at the blackboard or overhead projector as well as those in the little desks. To put it another way, everything is in place for a much more prodigious achievement than we comfortably claim for ivy-covered and ivyless halls, but, after the grunting and sweating are over, most of what has been accomplished soon dissipates in a sort of amnemonic chamber that protects the brain against overload. Sally Magnan (1989, p. 16) laments that "students often seem unable to express themselves and interact with native French speakers as effectively and accurately as we would expect." The reading sector seems to stand on the same ground, shaky, as observed by JoAnn Hammadou (1990, p. 239) who asserts that "teachers are often frustrated by a mystifying array of stumbling blocks that second-language readers encounter." In general across the nation, foreign language instructors have been aware for some time, according to Christine Brown (1995, p.19), that "the language capabilities of American youth lag[s] far behind their counterparts in almost every other nation.

More than a disappointment, it is a costly defeat. One of the costs is our self-esteem and another is our public esteem which implicates the esteem of a crucial discipline; our civilization can reject neither the practical proficiency in foreign language acquisition nor cultivating an awareness of foreign literature with impunity. Look at it this way: our intelligentsia (your definition) affirms its contact with English departments by using the American English language with some aplomb, with history departments by its general awareness of biographies and events, with science departments by its more than rudimentary understanding of the physical universe, and certainly with colleges of business administration by the vigor of corporate America. If its contact with foreign language departments is as productive as these others, it is time for that validating reality to be brought to our attention.

The variety of problems that the student of a foreign language encounters ranges from the quite mechanical to those that demand a certain comprehension. Verbal aspect lurks at the sophisticated end of this scale. The concept is complex, being the domain of the native speaker, and challenges learners in both passive and active functions. In attaining control of verbal aspect in French, learners go beyond vocabulary, morphology and syntax. To all of that, they must add a semantic judgment that may well be another of those frightful brand new concepts to many of them.

Almost all instructors, however "near" native their fluency is, are upon occasion going to make a dubious choice between the two aspects. Yet, their presentation and explanation of the uses of the imperfect and the passé composé may be more helpful to the learners than the attempts of native speakers whose discretion is flawless. I recall an honored first-year French text, excellent on the whole, of thirty years ago that compared verbal aspect to photography, suggesting that the imperfect is similar to a motion picture and that the passé composé is like a snapshot. Surely I can find wide comfort in thinking that precisely the opposite is true. But, have mercy upon us, when using the imperfect for narration, the best French writers do not help instructors; they just produce marvelous literature. *A nous de nous débrouiller*!

In order to feel adequately synchronized with most of my colleagues on general constructions of the concepts involved—narration, description, aspect—I reviewed several current and a few older textbooks, particularly the sections destined to present these concepts to the learners. The authors of these texts listed as characteristic applications of the imperfect (1) description in the past without concern for beginning or terminating the action, (2) background for narrative interruption, (3) frequent or extended action including habit, (4) mental conditions in the past, (5) states or background in the past, and (6) action in progress. Different authors express these in different ways but the treatment is nearly even and the presentations are effective. Bullock (1955, p. 138) states categorically that the "imperfect tense is the descriptive past." Oudot's presentation (1988, p. 9, "The imperfect is the tense of description.") is scarcely different. As characteristic uses of the passé composé they noted (1) complete past actions or events, (2) actions occurring at a specific moment, (3) changes in state of mind, (4) reactions and results, (5) interruptions or changes of conditions, (6) progression along sequence of events, and (7) occurrences of specific frequency. These are not quite so evenly handled; the concept of complete actions gets little attention but the moving along a sequence of events seems to be a universal concern. Again, however, the presentations are effective although expressed in a variety of ways. It is productive for the learners to see these two categories as cases of narration, on the one hand, and description, on the other. If an apology for the artificiality of this were necessary, I would aver that, in a professional discussion dealing with the linguistic realities of French verbal aspect, much more would need to be said. To solve the problems of methodology, nothing more sophisticated is useful. Although the application of the imperfect includes suggestion, condition-result expression, and an outright conditional denotation, the student's problem with choice centers on the descriptive-narrative function. By description, it is expedient to include these elements: detail as description, mental state, concurrent condition, repetition, extension, and background for narrative interruption. St. Onge and Terry (1990, p. 370) likewise offer "recurring or habitual actions, background, circumstances, conditions, and feelings" as cases of verbal description. All these have enough to do with the function of the photographic snapshot in which no change is effected. Although the imperfect, as description, may be an integral part of a narration, it is thus only by fitting in with the narrative element as the other component; it is not the narrative. By narration, it is expedient to include complete actions, change of condition, progress in a sequence, and reaction. Hirsch and Thompson (1989, p. 83) call the passé composé "the narrative mode." All these have enough to do with the function of the cinema in which a sequence of changes occurs. While this dichotomy lacks something in sophistication, it provides students with a means of resolving almost all their problems with aspect. Better still, attention to the dichotomy alerts learners early on to the reality that aspect *is* a problem to be dealt with.

While I have not yet tried "everything" imaginable to place this concept functionally in the minds of my charges, I have tried much. I have been relatively successful, just as, I suppose, we all have, although probably few of us are content. If, as I urge, this function is indicative of some universal learning "disorder" against which we lay siege at every lesson, it is profitable to observe the typical behavior of decent students unwittingly dodging their instructor's methodology for connecting them with this wonderful linguistic function.

Without quite knowing how I shall approach this problem next semester, I can review the battery of strategies that I have tried or seen tried. At my most naive moment, the seductive "straight line"—plain but pertinent presentation—was pressed into service, in the belief that the best lesson was the simplest, most accurate, and most direct. The "straight line" is the style of grammatical explanations in the text. In very fact, that is the least effective; it is the most confusing in all its precise clarity and brevity, a reality that already begins to implicate the pernicious participation of the maverick subconscious. The foreign language instructor should be content if the magnitude of confusion before him is consonant with the real magnitude of the complexity before the students. Even if this is a phenomenon that affects only the lower third or fourth of the class, our commission has become specifically to establish methodologies that reach those talents who heretofore floated beyond the scope of regular instruction, particularly when the unique stumbling block for so many has been the foreign language requirement.

The comparison with photography, correctly sorted out, must be used if only to illustrate how an interlocutor might construe a certain message according to whether it is received in the cinematic-narrative aspect or in the snapshot-descriptive aspect. Allen and Fouletier-Smith (1995, p. 316) have updated this comparison by using the VCR on "play" to demonstrate narration and on "pause" to demonstrate description. The inventory of English verbal forms (the past progressive, the conditional, and the "used to" paraphrase for description, and the present perfect and the past emphatic for narration) is essential also but begs the confusion in English of the simple past as well as the interrogative and negative of the past emphatic and past progressive; these forms are not "aspect" specific. There are too many exceptions to deal with in a few lessons and, worse, none of that is very stimulating to the skeptical student. The instructor must convince the learners that the majority of their discourse in the past tense is a matter either of describing or narrating whether they're using English or the target language. *Minute*! They need to know what narration is because, although they already understand and apply it, they do not appreciate it in terms of the companion function of description. Students have a good chance of choosing the passé composé as the equivalent of the English present perfect and of learning the formula for conditional statements with the conditional and imperfect, the imperfect for indirect discourse and the suggestive imperfect. This is not, unfortunately, a matter of understanding aspect.

So what do we do? Often we illustrate aspect with sentences placing the event in the midst of the situation: *Il lisait le journal quand le téléphone a sonné*. We frequently rely heavily on the verbs of mental activities to impress our classes that what the French can effect with a change of aspect, we can attain only with a change of vocabulary: *Elle savait nager* against *Elle a su nager*. These latter kinds of illustrations of aspect may, after all, be the successful ones that finally break through the subconscious barrier and give the learner a momentary grasp of verbal aspect. The importance of the students' controlling verbal aspect in French can be partially illustrated by the interest they would have in avoiding such an utterance, in ignorance, as "Nous nous sommes aimés" if the intended message were much less active.

Using this intriguing phenomenon of the verbs that must translate more radically than merely to different forms in English, I have developed the illustration into a guessing game. After running the gamut of lessons and illustrations, I finish with an exercise of this nature and finally test their understanding in a similar fashion. As the immediately above example with *nager*, these all come in pairs. With each pair are two questions, one of which corresponds to the narrative (passé composé) statement and the other to the descriptive (imperfect). Of course, as an exercise or an exam, only one question is necessary. The lack of context in these pairs is a small yet negligible problem. The function of context is to provide *additional* information about certain elements. The sentences bear enough integrity, I find, to lead students to increasingly satisfactory responses. May we not assume that this exercise can better equip learners to make full use of context in subsequent readings or conversations?

The result of the following task is to force students to react differently according to whether the French verb is in a "perfectum" aspect (passé composé or passé simple) in an "imperfectum" aspect (imperfect). The learner is obliged to assume that one of the pair more nearly equates the sense of the accompanying paragraph in English. Once the students accept the conditions of the exercise, it will be clearer to them why the French use such a delineation of past tenses and subsequently why English speakers make certain choices between the simple past, present perfect, past progressive, and certain paraphrases in the past. The pairs of sentences using the same verb in each aspect may be a testing form. As part of a lesson, probably most instructors would prefer using an overhead projector while reading the accompanying commentary in English. The use of English here is recommended for the purpose of avoiding the inevitable giveaway of the better selection by the tense of the commentary. Recognizing the wide variety of perceptions of the exact nature of communicative instruction, I suggest that this exercise contributes pertinently to achieving the objectives of that style.

Following are several examples of the aspect pairs with an accompanying commentary for each pair. The learners assume that, despite the great similarity of the two sentences in each pair, the message of each sentence is distinct from that of its partner. The objective here is for the learners to see which messages are in which aspects.

1. Jacqueline prenait un dessert.
    Louise a pris un dessert.
        Who should have counted calories more carefully? (descriptive) or Who ended the meal on a sweet note? (narrative)

One of the sentences affirms that Jacqueline put away many sugared dishes and the other goes no further than to bring a single meal to a sweet conclusion. The learner is invited to see the passé composé as the complete act of perhaps half an hour: ordering and then consuming.

2. Pierre est mort hier.
    Robert mourait hier.
        Who was buried? (narrative) or Who was possibly saved by the physician? (descriptive)

We want the learners to realize that the imperfect stops short of completing the action.

3. Suzanne avait une bonne idée.

Thérèse a eu une bonne idée.
Who screamed: "Eureka!" (narrative) or Who could
have been asked to help solve a problem?
(descriptive)

If the learners understand the mental change implied in the Greek expression, they may well react appropriately to either of these expressions.

4. Hugo buvait beaucoup de vin.
Victor a bu beaucoup de vin.
Who had a bad habit? (descriptive) or Who tied on
a good one? (narrative)

The learners are well aware that one "swallow" doth not a spring or a sot make, so the frequently repeated action must be the habit and the habit must be a mere condition.

5. André étudiait l'histoire.
Bernard a étudié l'histoire.
Who knew his beans in history? (narrative) or Who
was enrolled in a history course? (descriptive)

What should be true for anyone who has majored in history that may not be true for another who has not yet completed the course of study? This pair could speak directly to completed action as a narrative function. Perhaps the final step in coming to grips with the concept of verbal aspect is to appreciate the sequence of a condition's being altered by a change that creates a new condition: not knowing ... learning ... knowing.

6. Xavier a fait ses devoirs.
Albert faisait ses devoirs.
Who maintained a high GPA? (descriptive) or Who
was prepared the next day? (narrative)

Of the many possibilities, one is that a lazy student might fulfill his scholastic responsibilities once in his school career and the other is that nothing affirms that a good student works hard every night.

7. Béatrice a lu *Madame Bovary*.
Charlotte lisait *Madame Bovary*.
Who can tell us how the novel ends? (narrative) or
Who was on p. 86 at that time? (descriptive)

As a photograph freezes, so does the imperfect so that, according to the verb form, Charlotte will never put the book down. The learners can appreciate that the complete action takes the reader of the novel from the first to the last pages.

8. Denis a eu mal à la tête.
Edouard avait mal à la tête.
Who probably took an aspirin? (descriptive) or Who stopped feeling good? (narrative)

When learners begin to understand conditions as descriptive, they are ready to see the narrative value of moving, in the past, from one condition to another.

9. Françoise savait que nous venions.
Hélène a su que vous venions.
Who had been informed of our arrival? (descriptive) or Who was unaware of our arrival until a certain moment? (narrative)

The learners must react appropriately to the English past perfect, which is not always assured, and they must appreciate the change of mental states, not knowing to knowing, as a narrative statement.

10. Marc voulait sortir avec Anne.
Pierre a voulu sortir avec Anne.
Who probably had a crush on Anne? (descriptive) or Who took Ann out? (narrative)

The learners understand the potential gap between yen and deed. It remains for them to see the former as descriptive and the latter as narrative, or static and change.

11. Michel se servait du Michelin pour trouver un restaurant.
Noé s'est servi du Michelin pour trouver un restaurant.
Who almost never regretted his choice of restaurants? (descriptive) or Who dined well yesterday? (narrative)

The imperfect suggests that Michel carried his Michelin with him on all trips. The passé composé affirms only the one meal, and the learner can appreciate the hint of the adverb.

12. Oscar perdait sa foi.
Pierre a perdu sa foi.
Whose doubts about the catechism become more and more serious? (descriptive) or Who became an agnostic? (narrative)

The imperfect leaves Oscar within the fold of believers, albeit by the gate. Pierre has made the change and has other things to do on Sundays.

13. Raoul marchait jusqu 'à l'école.
    Serge a marché jusqu 'à l'école.
        Who got to school? (narrative) or Who may have arrived at school? (descriptive)

The complete action, or complete trip, is expressed by the narrative passé composé. The imperfect leaves the end of the walk to the rest of the narration and, for all the reader knows at that point, Raoul might change direction.

14. Antoinette louait ses amies.
    Babette a loué ses amies.
        Whose friends could count on her for praise. (descriptive) or Whose friends were pleased to learn that they were appreciated for what they had done? (narrative)

Antoinette's appreciative nature is expressed by the imperfect. We cannot tell much about Babette's nature, but at least once she recognized her friends' merits.

Had Chateaubriand been chatting with his sister about his conversion to Christianity, and he must have, although he narrated it in his *Mémoires d'outre-tombe* in the simple past, he could have told her: "J'ai cru et j'ai pleuré". I would like for my students to see that his moment to say "Je croyais" comes after the change and describes his state of mind for an indefinite period to come.

This approach is, of course, wholly passive and the rest of the students' task is still begging attention. A more active way to assess sensitivity to verbal aspect is to establish a situation in English that must be resolved by converting an expression in the present tense in French to either the imperfect or the passé composé. Here are several examples:

> 1. Henri and Jacques lived in the same neighborhood for months before meeting each other. Eventually they were close friends. Their friendship came about because a mutual friend had them both to dinner one evening.
>
> Ils se connaissent chez Louis.
> *Ils se sont connus chez Louis.*

The situation as introduced encourages the learner to express the change that occurred in that relationship.

2. Maurice was smart and solved all problems that came his way. His acquaintances were never surprised when he thought of something new and brilliant. Indeed, they expected it of him and he rarely let them down.

Maurice a de bonnes idées.
Maurice avait de bonnes idées.

This time the learner is directed specifically toward giving a description of Maurice, one that could be considered a frozen and illustrative cliché of Maurice's mind.

3. Ursule and Victor wanted to stay in shape. Their favorite sport was tennis and they lived near an excellent court. They wore out many pairs of tennis shoes.

Ils jouent au tennis.
Ils jouaient au tennis.

Frequency through habit is urged by the commentary, forcing the learner to characterize the couple.

4. Madame Thiers was disappointed in her son's having failed the baccalauréat but she knew that he had not worked as he should have.

Elle gronde son fils pour sa paresse.
Elle a grondé son fils pour sa paresse.

This is a piece of cake if the learners suspect that nobody makes a habit of taking that examination.

5. My father wasn't rich but he was touched by sight of the misery of poverty. He never passed up an opportunity to help out some poor soul who obviously was without adequate resources.

Mon père donne de l'argent aux pauvres.
Mon père donnait de l'argent aux pauvres.

The English commentary confirms his generosity and his compassion. It is these descriptive qualities that determine the use of the imperfect.

One of the most formidable barriers to mastery of verbal aspect is coming to terms with the English simple past tense of verbs of mental activity: knew, wanted, feared, believed, thought, felt, loved, hated, etc. It seems that, first, we must tend to present the past tense in general as narrative with, of course, the exceptional applications. Having done this, the instructor needs to demonstrate how the simple past tense of verbs of mental activity is uniformly descriptive. Learners tend to need special help to avoid construing expressions such as "j'ai su" as "I knew" or, going from English to French, "I feared" as "j'ai eu peur." This is an assault on almost all of their acquired concepts of related matters. We may have confidence in the high probability that those students who continue several semesters beyond the foreign language requirement will eventually have an extended contact with the target culture. We may also hope that those who replace us will master verbal aspect and all the other spiny problems of the foreign language classroom. For the others who are mastering equally involved conundrums of other disciplines, it will remain enough for us to strive to broaden and deepen the portion of the foreign language requirement's content during the few lessons that our colleagues of tertiary education generously allot us.

This treatment of verbal aspect seems to inflate the problem beyond its true dimensions. Indeed, it is within the grasp of an alert and willing adolescent, yet slightly beyond the reach of alert young adults. It has proven too simplistic a gambit to try to "make French interesting" or "fun" because that strategy rests on the assumption that French is dull. It is far from clear that the instructor has the right to assume that the learners must be incapable of responding to the value and even thrill of a foreign language, particularly French. A more profitable approach may be to target a more pliable area of the mental process, perhaps by dint of James Asher's "brainswitching" which sends the lesson to the right brain by being a little more dramatic than are typical presentations. Such is what I hope to do with this particular kind of lesson.

A Teaching/Testing Module for Illustrating Verb Aspect in French and Verifying the Results

I. Goals
A. To solidify the concept of aspect in the French verb system that students have acquired through exercises in their text and/or workbooks
B. To increase the students' awareness of the distinct messages that each mode (narrative and descriptive) bears
C. To assess in a communicative frame-work the students' grasp of verbal aspect in the past

II. Materials
A. Overhead projector and/or handouts
B. Scripts with accompanying commentaries in English

III. Procedures
A. In lessons
1. Passive responses

The exercises in the text and workbook should be addressed first. After having made that initial acquaintance with aspect, the students should "pin down" their control of the imperfect and the passé composé.

The passive exercise consists of the pairs of French sentences using the same verb in both aspects.

The instructor may allow one minute for the students to make their choice before selecting an individual. If correct, the student should justify the choice briefly. If wrong, a volunteer may be asked to highlight the situation that leads to a correct choice. To expand the exercise, a third volunteer might be asked to develop a situation in which the other sentence might be appropriate.

2. Active responses

This exercise entails the situations expressed in English with one sentence in French in the present tense. This lends itself to work in groups, or pairs, since part of the problem is to construct the tense chosen to best convey the given message.

The activity can be conducted either with handouts containing the French sentences or by an overhead projector with the sentences.

The instructor should read the accompanying material in English relative to each sentence in French. The same request for justification should be made to reinforce the validity of the choice.

B. For testing

1. Passive responses

Since the answers to this style of questions are simple preferences between two given names, the passive responses are less probing and indeed a little less useful for testing. I recommend that this part be used only in conjunction with the active responses.

2. Active responses

Several functions are tested in this section, apparently a slightly more legitimate testing style now than it was several years ago when discrete point testing was *de rigueur*. The accompanying paragraph in English is presented in print and the students give the new verb form of either the passé composé or the imperfect to replace the present tense verb in the French sentence. In addition to choosing the appropriate aspect, the students must give the correct verb form, make correct subject-verb agreement, and make the past participles agree. Since this is a test of aspect, each sentence should be worth three (3) points for the functional parts and three (3) points for aspect.

3. In testing verbal aspect along with other items on an hour exam, a sufficient section could consist of five (5) active and five (5) passive items. Thus, the ten-item section should add no more than five (5) minutes to the total exam time.

Sample transparency (passive exercise — answers in [])

1. a. Robert attendait leur retour.
b. Serge a attendu leur retour.
Who was waiting for them when they arrived? [Serge]

2. a. Thomas conduisait prudemment.
b. Ursule a conduit prudemment.
Whose driving record was spotless? [Thomas]

3. a. Victor envoyait de l'argent à sa mère.
b. Yves a envoyé de l'argent à sa mère.
Who had a sense of responsibility toward his parent? [Victor]

4. a. Denis embêtait tout le monde.
b. Eugéne a embêté tout le monde.
Who was rarely invited to dinners or parties? [Denis]

5. a. Georgess'asseyait tout près de Françoise.
b. Henri s'est assis tout près de Françoise.
Who got a little bolder in history class yesterday? [Henri]

6. a. Jacques rentrait à six heures.
b. Louis est rentré à six heures.
Who always came straight home from work? [Jacques]

7. a. Mimi avait peur de cet homme.
b. Naomi a eu peur de cet homme.
Who lost her composure when that man appeared? [Naomi]

8. a. Octave ne comprenait pas ses parents.
b. Pierre n'a pas compris ses parents.
Who got an obscure message? [Pierre]

Sample transparency (active exercise)

1. (s'occupe)
Madame Lambert ____________________ du compte en banque.

2. (font)
Les Marchais ______________construire une nouvelle maison.

3. (lit)
Il ______________________ les oeuvres complètes de Racine.
4. (range)
Elle ____________________ sa chambre.

5. (intimide)
Le patron nous ____________________.

6. (vit)
Jacques __________________ tout seul.

7. (trouve)
Monique ________________ son sac à main derrière le canapé.

8. (je suis)
Pardon, mon ami, j' ________________ impoli envers toi.

9. (dort)
Nadège _________________ sur le divan.

10. (gagne)
Pascal __________________ beaucoup d'argent.

Accompanying commentaries in English (active exercise)

1. Mr. Lambert wasn't very good at math and made a mess of the checking account. Fortunately his wife knew how to handle it.
[s'occupait]

2. The Marchais family now live in a brand new home that took several months to

build.
[ont fait]

3. He found Racine's theatre fascinating but wasn't sure that he would get it all read before the final exam.
[lisait]

4. One wonders how long it took her to get her bedroom so tidy.
[a rangé]

5. The boss wasn't mean, but his manner kept us all on our toes.
[intimidait]

6. Alas, poor Jacques, died without having shared his life with anyone.
[a vécu]

7. Lucky Monique, her son had put her purse behind the sofa but now she has it again after a thorough search of her home.
[a trouvé]

8. I'm ashamed of what I did to you and I truly hope that you can forgive me. It won't happen again.
[ai été]

9. Nadège's family couldn't afford a large enough flat, so the best solution seemed to be to have her sleep in the living room.
[dormait]

10. Pascal can afford to buy a new house, car, and wardrobe as well as take his family to Europe this summer.
[a gagné]

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Author

JAMES E. BLACKBURN, Associate Professor of French, Chairman of Department of Foreign Languages, Coastal Carolina University, Conway, SC 29526. Specializations: history of French civilization, medieval French and Provencal literature, composition and reading.

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FACULTY EXCHANGE

Lessons Learned on Management of CAS Development

Kiril Boyadjieff
Curriculum and Instruction

> No mistake is unforgivable, if
> we do not repeat it.
>
> Demarco
> *Controlling Software Projects*

Computer-assisted studies (CAS) are increasingly gaining the attention of many professionals in the field of foreign language (FL) education. The most obvious reason for this trend are factors such as the increased capability and reliability of today's multimedia personal computers (PCs), the falling cost of available technology, and the new generation of students for whom electronic media are a familiar habitat. In addition, certain elements of modern FL learning methodology also provide incentives for CAS proliferation. Current notions such as authentic materials, student-centered curriculum, and self-paced instruction, are well supported by CAS.

To date, the most significant effort by the Defense Language Institute (DLI) in the field of CAS development has been the Special Operations Forces (SOF) Project. This massive work produced over 4,500 interactive computer-based exercises in 13 languages which in some cases required highly customized font systems. At the end of 1993, the following phases of the project had been successfully accomplished: requirement analysis, preliminary template design, detailed design based on language-specific materials, and initial testing. With this, the first part of the project came to end.

At the beginning of 1994, soon after the original production group was dissolved, a task force was created as part of Technology Integration Division (TI). The main responsibilities of the task force consisted of testing the newly developed CAS materials, debugging those materials, and assisting the client in the implementation phase of the CAS. As a project coordinator and team leader of the task force, I had the opportunity to become familiar with the SOF Project, and with its strengths and deficiencies. I also participated in the relatively complex process of the client's familiarization with the CAS materials. Observing the initial reservations, occasional rejections, and gradual expansion of support by students and teachers was not only educational, but also quite fascinating. The following comments reflect some of the thoughts, analyses, and conclusions generated as a result of this experience.

Requirement Analysis

As far as the SOF Project is concerned, the most important document addressing the requirement analysis is the *Memorandum of Agreement* (date) between SOF and DLI. Specifically, pages six and seven of this document describe the parameters and characteristics of the CAS. Here, the CAS is defined as support homework to the main course of studies.

The "support" status of CAS materials is a legitimate way to utilize computer technology. However, in future CAS projects, we have to avoid cloning CAS materials after "paper-and-pencil" products. The interactive element—actually one of the most attractive features of computer-based materials—can suffer a great number of unnecessary restrictions if CAS materials are not conceived with computer specifics in mind. Underestimating the differences between books and monitors during the phase of requirement analysis inevitably leads to unwelcome compromises during the CAS design and production phases.

Preliminary Design

During this phase, most of the templates (which essentially are the software models of the particular exercises) are developed by a team of experts. Here, both FL teaching methodology and advanced programming skills in the particular computer authoring language are required for successful accomplishment of this task.

DLI has accumulated significant resources in these areas. Fortunately, such DCI offices as Curriculum Development, Faculty and Staff Training, and Technology Integration can offer valuable expertise in CAS development. If these sources of expertise are not fully involved from the beginning of the CAS project, their effectiveness in the later phases is greatly reduced. The initial design of the templates and especially the initial training of the CAS developmental team will benefit greatly from close coordination between appropriate DLI personnel.

Another area deserving attention is the establishment of a cohesive team of developers of the CAS templates. Effective communication, trust, and mutual respect are indispensable in cases where team efforts are needed. Most of all, an accurate understanding of the project's goals and giving the priority to mission accomplished are critical for the success of the project. In the selection process of a team coordinator, qualities such as team-sensitive, technically informed, and assertive should be of high consideration. Along with proven communicative skills, these qualities establish the foundation of successful project coordination.

The reference to the team approach made in the preceding paragraph is directly related to the type of supervision needed in major CAS projects. Whenever a team coordinator is not appointed, direct supervision becomes critical for the success of any CAS project. In addition to having a thorough understanding of modern foreign language methodology and having managerial skills based on contemporary concepts such as team building, delegation of power, and Equal Employment Opportunity; the software development supervisor has to have a high level of familiarity with the computer-authoring language. In the absence of a project coordinator, the software team must be guided by a person who can develop, program, and analyze new materials. The management of CAS projects requires making complex and often difficult decisions on a daily basis. Moreover, decision-making is only the first step. The timely and effective implementation of these decisions requires the full confidence of the team members in the competence of the supervisors.

Quality control is another element that greatly affects the preliminary design of CAS. Designing and developing defect-free templates is not only desirable but also achievable. This approach is much less costly than massive debugging at later stages when the templates are multiplied by thousands. Key conditions leading to bug-free templates are a combination of true team efforts, competent project coordination, free flow of information, and early external quality control. Some organizations have developed the so-called Software Quality Assurance Units (SQAU) to implement the concept of independent quality control. In most cases, the SQAU are responsible for reviewing the developmental output on a phase-by-phase basis with the goal of predetermined quality assurance planning.

Detailed Design

This is the CAS developmental stage when the finished templates are provided to teams for developing language-specific materials. Here, three elements are of significant importance: training, testing, and cultural appropriateness.

The training of the language-specific teams should include general and specific elements. General elements include the ongoing training provided by internal and external sources. This type of training is based on long-term planning and it is independent of specific CAS needs. Acquiring basic skills in word processing and gaining familiarity with modern FL methodology are the professional responsibility of every FL educator. The CAS specific training should include at least an introductory course on the computer authoring language, appropriate programming practice and computer ethics, screen design, and safety elements.

Testing of the newly produced software is one of the most resource-intensive activities of the entire developmental process. Failure to recognize the importance of software testing can lead to unnecessary expenditures. Various approaches to software testing such as unit testing, system testing, stress testing, etc., provide ample opportunity for appropriate testing procedures throughout the entire developmental cycle.

The use of generic template packages for the needs of several language-specific CAS projects is a cost-effective approach because it has one of the highest return-on-investment percentage as far as the initial developmental expenses are concerned. In this case, however, the attention to cultural specifics must be a priority for every member of the developmental team. A reasonable degree of flexibility must be accommodated in every template in order to provide each language-specific CAS with sufficient room for accommodating culturally specific elements. Even the most reliable CAS exercises lose their appeal when culturally inappropriate graphics and texts are present. "Inexpensive" should not become a synonym for "cheap" in any CAS.

Field Testing and Debugging

The field testing should start as early as possible. There are at least four advantages in such an approach. First, dynamic working relations are established between the CAS developers and the users—the users feel involved in the developmental process. Second, errors are detected and corrected on time. Third, the client's concerns are addressed when time and resources are still available. Fourth, the software is validated, i.e., the computer system provides real-life assurance that it does what it supposed to do.

Internal testing is not a substitute for field testing. Software development inevitably creates syndromes such as "tunnel vision" and "proof of correctness." In the first case, the developers focus so much and for such a long period on their own concepts that their "peripheral vision" becomes narrow. In the second case, the developers are so eager to demonstrate the reliability of their product that they subconsciously avoid areas of potential software failure. Independent external quality control and field testing are the best known countermeasures to these problems.

If quality control is adequately applied, the debugging during the implementation stage should not be of great concern. On the other hand, if the basic principles of quality control are ignored or otherwise not implemented, debugging can become a very expensive if not impossible task. In the second case, a task force combining new programmers (to provide fresh viewpoints) and some of the original developers (to assure continuity) might be the best way to solve quality problems. Still, the best alternative of *defect elimination* is *defect avoidance*.

Installation and Maintenance

Even with the best software packages, there are problems with software installation and with the maintenance of workstations. Factors such as the clients' sophistication prior to delivery, their involvement in the developmental process, and their ability to control the status of the software and hardware are critical in the overall satisfaction. Also, it is highly desirable that troubleshooting guidelines which address routine and predictable maintenance tips accompany the software delivery. The adoption of this suggestion should not eliminate the utilization of appropriate on-screen instructions and help devices.

The issue of installation and maintenance becomes especially sensitive when the clients are far away from the developers as was the case of the SOF Project. In such instances, agreements and contents should include specifics that clearly outline each side's responsibility regarding the process of familiarization with the new software. Also, the contract has to specify the client's responsibility in maintaining an appropriate system environment after the initial setup. The allocation of resources for at least a part-time system maintenance position is highly recommended particularly in those cases where workstations are accessed by multiple users.

Upgrading

Today, it is well known that by the time a software package reaches the market, it is already to some degree obsolete. CAS are no exception to this common trend. A contract on software development should address the issue of system upgrading. In cases when the original software has been successfully developed and implemented, the clients' best choice for further upgrades is the original developers. Other alternatives carry probabilities of prohibitive cost increase and unnecessary risk.

Leadership

The commitment of the organization's top leadership to a particular CAS project is indispensable. There is nothing more discouraging to the staff than flip-flops on the side of top management. In my opinion, the lack of well-defined purpose, strict timetables, and leadership support from the beginning to the end of a particular CAS project are the three main reasons for us having too many expensive demos and too few finished CAS materials that truly affect our classrooms. In my case, I would have been doomed to failure as a project coordinator at least several times in the last eight months if I did not have the constructive and consistent support of my dean.

Conclusion

Harold T. Taylor in a remarkable book, *Delegate of Stagnate*, emphasizes the point that every manager who innovates, introduces changes, delegates power, and makes significant decisions; sooner or later will make mistakes. Taylor also promotes the idea that good judgment is an outcome of experience, and experience quite often is the outcome of bad judgment. Managing a software development project is not an exception to his postulates. Nevertheless, we have the professional obligation to carefully analyze our past experience and to make sure that future projects benefit from this process. Our own further efforts in the field of software development will be the most undeniable proof that we are able to learn as individuals as well as an organization.

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Author

KIRIL BOYADJIEFF, Technology Specialist, Curriculum and Instruction, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specialization: applications of state-of-the-art multimedia technology in the field of interactive materials for the needs of foreign language education.

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Computers and the Foreign Language Curriculum: Old Questions, New Horizons

Steve Koppany
Curriculum and Instruction

For some years now, foreign language (FL) teachers, as a whole a creative and inventive lot, have been caught up in a stormy affair with the computer. Broken promises, unfulfilled expectations have caused many to abandon any hope of a permanent and productive relationship. The assertion that "teachers who know how to use computers will eventually replace those who don't," has come to be viewed as yet another catchy sounding but unsubstantiated prediction.

Strange that this should be the case at a time when America's fascination with computers and interactive technology in virtually every facet of life is at its apex. In the world of academia in particular, no self-respecting educational institution would be caught dead any more without computer-based or computer-assisted programs of one sort or another among its list of offerings. The fact is that there is an entire generation of young people out there to whom the 286 processor, the EGA monitor and the 5 1/4" floppy disk are little more than museum pieces to be displayed next to the typewriter and the punch card.

The problem stems neither from the state of the art in computer technology which in many ways is light-years ahead of the immediate requirements of our profession, nor from a shortage of FL software. In some of the "popular" languages there is actually quite an abundance of commercially produced vocabulary builders, electronic flash cards, translation drills, and grammar exercises. It is the instructional value of the great majority of these materials that remains disappointing. With few exceptions, they lack relevance, currency, adaptability, authenticity, and communicative interaction, the very essence of teaching for proficiency.

What we are really faced with is a classic stalemate: The reason why the computer-based FL materials currently on the market lack the key elements of proficiency-oriented teaching is because FL professionals who understand proficiency were not involved in their development. Conversly, the reason why they continue to be excluded is because they lack the time, the patience, the sense of urgency and the necessary computer skills. Consequently, the profession at large has not seriously considered even the basic issues involved in the proper integration of computers into the modern curriculum. Thus, software producers continue to churn out FL tutorials of dubious value, while teachers continue to shake their heads in disappointment.

Winning Everyone's Hearts and Minds

Here, at the Defense Language Institute, for the computer to be viewed by most teachers as a helpful *and* easy-to-use instructional tool certain conditions need to be assured, including:

> (1) administrative support at the team, department, school and command level (reasonable development time, recognition, incentives);
> (2) technical support (availability of hardware and software, training opportunities);
> (3) methodological support (ideas, assistance in implementing proficiency on the computer);
> (4) curriculum support (define role of computer-based materials in the program, i.e., stand-alone or integrated; basic, maintenance, refresher, remedial, or enhancement materials; teaching or testing, etc.)

Support, on the other hand, is a resource matter, which means that in order for it to flow uninterrupted it needs to be translated into tangible products and results. Given the rapidly changing state of the art in the world of computers, there is a growing temptation and a natural tendency to embrace the latest technologies that appear on the horizon. In these times of shrinking resources and tightening budgets, however, DLI can scarcely afford to switch horses mid-stream without providing the "customers" with products assembled with the technologies in which they have already made an investment.

New Approach Needed

Clearly what is needed is a re-focused approach to computer-based materials development at all levels, one that is simultaneously customer as well as teacher and developer-friendly. Such an approach must:

> (1) promote simple and realistic proficiency/FLO-based projects targeted at immediate needs;
> (2) foster the development and dissemination of templates and easy-to-use authoring tools;
> (3) encourage the full exploitation of existing technologies and resources, while carefully monitoring and keeping pace with important new developments;
> (4) discourage materials development in isolation, incompatibility, and technical elitism;
> (5) provide a simple mechanism for the expedited field-testing and implementation of all materials developed.

In some areas this re-focusing has already begun. Recent undertakings, such as the Serbian/Croatian conversion project, the Spanish (Costa Rican) video project and the Ukrainian course development project, all have a realistic CAS component with a clearly defined focus. For the most part, however, development in isolation, duplication of efforts, and insufficient support still remain a problem.

New Horizons

The most significant step toward ending the stalemate has been in the area of template development; i.e., in making authoring accessible to the average teacher. After a year of intense effort, and with input from many contributors, the Technology Training (TT) Branch of the Directorate of Curriculum Instruction has come up with a solution for teachers who have been wanting to tap the interactive potential of computers, but have lacked the time and skills to do so. Titled the *DLI Template Library*, this innovative program has managed to harness the vast potential of the widely praised but still rather complex *Multimedia Toolbook* authoring ware, and to organize them into FL teacher-friendly building blocks.

Specifically, the library contains 72 ready-made activities, organized in accordance with Harmer's teaching model (i.e., lead-in, task, follow-up). They range from the more traditional Multiple Choice and True or False variety to such product and performance-oriented tasks as report writing, extracting essential elements of information, gisting, summarizing and many others. Collected over time from various sources, each activity has been standardized and templatized for easy adaptation to any FL for which a functional font set is available in the Microsoft Windows 3.1 environment. Easy-to-follow on-screen instructions lead the developer through the once agonizing process of lesson creation within just the fraction of the time it used to take to generate anything that the students could use.

A typical lesson developed from the resources of the DLI Template Library, for example, may start out with a "Prediction" activity in which the student listens to an authentic recording and writes down 1. what events might have preceded the excerpt, and 2. what events might come after the excerpt. This could be followed by a "Scanning" activity, using a newspaper excerpt on a related topic; a "Note-taking" activity, in which the student listens to four different listening passages concerning the same event and compare their work with the original scripts; a "Summary" activity, in which the student listens to and/or reads a passage, then types a summary in the target language or in English and compares his work with two possible summaries. As a follow-up, the student might be asked to write a story, a letter or a report based on the preceding activities and/or a list of related pictures and vocabulary items.

With the templatization of pre-designed activities the technical chore of writing scripts (i.e., instructions to the computer) to make things happen on the screen has been virtually eliminated, shifting the focus to where it belongs: to the development of a well-designed and creative language lesson.

It is this shift of focus which teachers will appreciate the most about TT's new offering. Just as artists should not have to worry about the chemical composition of the paints on their palette, the FL teachers should also not be stifled by irrelevant technical details. The library also offers additional conveniences that make authoring not only efficient but also enjoyable, including the flexibility to move and rearrange text, pictures and other objects on the screen; the availability of an extensive collection of clipped pictures; a sound recording studio and clip-maker; a video clip-maker that allows the incorporation into the lesson video clips and sound captured from a laser disk; as well as a nifty little template-within-a-template, called the "LessonMaker."

The DLI Template Library can be put to immediate use for daily lesson preparation; the development of FLO-oriented "Bridges" and the design of enhancement and remedial materials for independent study. As any depository of resources, the library is also expected to evolve and expand as new acquisitions are added to its current stock. As that happens, the library can easily become the basis of more complex curriculum development projects as well.

Encouraging Initial Results

Recent training workshops conducted by TT personnel at I Corps, Fort Lewis, and at 470th MI Bde in Corozal, Panama, have shown that the proper command support, a mission-focused language program, and a user-friendly authoring tool as the Template Library can add up to a winning combination when it comes to putting computers to proficiency-oriented training use. After some initial guidance, teachers at both locations were able to produce good quality FL lessons within as little as 8 to 15 hours (depending on content and complexity). More importantly, they developed a level of affinity with the technology that surprised even the trainers, leading one to conclude that "teachers who know how to use computers will eventually feel more complete and more productive than those who don't."

Author

STEVE KOPPANY, Faculty Development Specialist, Technology Training Branch, Curriculum and Instruction, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93950-5006. Specializations: second language acquisition, integration of computerized materials into the foreign language curriculum, faculty training.

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Information Gap Activities

Mehmet Ali Cicekdag
Curriculum and Instruction

Introduction

In the past the Turkish Department used a textbook that started with the dialogue, "What is this?" "This is a pencil." Later on in the program, because students had to recite the dialogue, they were instructed to ask one another "How many arms do you have?" "I have two arms. How many legs do you have?" No wonder they were bored most of the time. This teaching method that relied on a language gap rather than an information gap have failed to use the human mind to its full even average potential.

The alternative to this unreal, and therefore unproductive, method is to teach for proficiency by bringing the real world, to the classroom. This may be easier said than done, one technique I find very useful in a foreign language classroom has been to create deliberate information and opinion gaps by administering pop Quiz and other communicative games and filling those gaps through cooperative action.

The Information Gap: A Definition

The term information gap covers a wide variety of techniques in which the objective is to convey or to request information on almost any number of topics. Many consider these techniques elements of teaching for proficiency because the real world with many of its problems is brought to the classroom and with it a need for sorting out and clarifying them. Indeed, information gap techniques' primary focus is on information and not on language forms. There is a built-in necessity of communicative interaction in order to reach the objective at hand. A speaker normally has a communicative purpose and a listener is interested in discovering what that purpose is. In other words, there is a gap between the two in the information they possess, and the conversation helps to close that gap so that now both speakers have the same information. The foreign language teacher's role is to manipulate information and hence create an information gap to be filled by students. The information gap that is created can almost always be genuine, regardless of its probable artificial and contrived origins.

The information that students seek may range from simple to complex depending on their foreign language proficiency levels. Brown (1994), for example, suggests that at introductory levels each member of a small group can be given the objective of finding out from the others their birthdays, addresses, favorite foods, etc. and jotting down the information in a chart. In an intermediate class, a brainstorming activity in small groups can be conducted where the students share information about different occupations, necessary qualifications, training costs, salary levels, etc. In advanced classes, information gap techniques may include a small group discussion to determine an author's message.

As suggested, information gap activities can start very early in the program. On the very first day, for example, when most of the students don't know one another, they might ask each other questions like "what is your name?" and "where are you from?". This simple activity not only fills a genuine information gap, it also addresses sociolinguistic needs of the participants as well.

Information Gap, Reasoning Gap, and Opinion Gap

In his Bangalore Project, Prabhu (1987), as reported by Nunan (1989) employed three types of activities: information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap activities.

Information Gap Activities

They involve a transfer of specific information from one person to another--or from one form to another, or from one place to another-- requiring decoding or encoding of information from or into foreign language. Information gap activities entail meaningful communication in a real-life context as opposed to meaningless, audio-lingual type activities. One example is a jigsaw activity in which each member of a pair has a portion of the information to explain to the other. In other words, jigsaw techniques each member of a group is given some specific information and the objective is to pool all information to achieve some goal.

For example, students can be divided into three groups for a trip to plan an activity. The first group is provided with a road map, the second group with a weather report, and the third group with information about traffic and road conditions. Then, students regroup, one member from each group get together to make a trip plan by sharing the information they have.[1]

Reasoning Gap Activities

These activities involve from given information through inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns (Nunan, 1989, 66). In other words, a process of reasoning connects the old information with the new one. One example is to produce a student's timetable from his/her class schedules and other daily activities. Another activity involves deciding what course of action is appropriate within certain constraints such as time and manpower. For example, students may be

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[1] I learned this activity from Leo van Lier.

tasked to list survival items which they would need in a lifeboat. This information gap activity entails comprehending and conveying information; however, the information to be submitted is not identical with that initially relayed. There is a process of reasoning, bargaining, and compromising going on in the meantime.

Opinion Gap Activities

These activities entail identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation or problem. Discussing social issues such as abortion or gun control can be used to conduct opinion gap activities. They may involve using factual information and preparing arguments to justify one's opinion. There are two points to be made regarding such activities. First, depending on the sensitivity of the issue and ideology of the participants, certain controversial topics should probably be avoided for the sake of harmony and peace in the classroom. One may also remind the students that there are no right or wrong opinions and, while there may be disagreement on some issues, all opinions are to be valued and respected. Second, according to Interagency Language Roundtable skill level descriptions, supporting an opinion is a level 3 task and convincing, persuading or advising is a level 4 task. However, I believe that students with lower proficiency levels can also take part in opinion gap activities without using higher levels of language. Expanding on these three communicative goals, Clark (1987) proposes seven activity types.

> 1. Solving problems through social interaction with others, such as participating in conversation related to the pursuit of a common activity with others, obtaining goods and services and necessary information through conversation or correspondence, making arrangements and coming to decisions with others.
>
> 2. Establishing and maintaining relationships and discussing topics of interest through exchanging information, ideas, opinions, attitudes, feelings, experiences, and plans.
>
> 3. Searching for specific information for a given purpose, processing it, and using it in some way (for example, find out the cheapest way to go from point A to point B).
>
> 4. Listening to or reading information, processing it, and using it (for example, read a news item and discuss it with someone, read an article and summarize it, listen to a lecture and take down notes).
>
> 5. Giving information in spoken or written form on the basis of personal experience (such as giving a talk, writing a report or diary, or filling out a form).

6. Listening to or reading a story, poem, etc. and responding to it personally in some way.

7. Creating an imaginative text (for some readers only) (pp. 238-239).

Games

Games are some of the most important tools a foreign language instructor can have, not only for the language practice they provide, but also for the therapeutic effect they have on learners. They can be used at any level of proficiency to provide an amusing and challenging break from other classroom activities. Games are especially useful at the end of a long day to send the students away feeling good about their language program. There is an abundance of information on games cited in literature (Wright, Buckby, & Betteridge, 1979; Lee, 1980; Maley, 1981). One game I find exceptionally useful is Twenty Questions. Students are divided into two teams. Each team must think of a number of objects. Team A members answer any question from team B members with "yes" or "no". The goal is to find out what the object is with a minimum number of questions. The game can be made more fun if each team is given a deck of cards showing various objects, placed face down. There are many versions of this particular game. My favorite one deals with famous people.

Harper's Index Activity or "Pop Quiz"

An information gap activity that often creates a lot of discussion in the classroom is based on Harper's Index, or on any other type of quantifiable information. From such sources I develop a multiple-choice "Pop Quiz" based on the information provided. It involves translating the information to the target language and coming up with three distracters together with the correct answer. Ideally, authentic materials in the target language can be used which eliminates the need for translation. Some sample questions are as follows:

1. Percentage of Super Bowl viewers who do not live in the United States

a. 11　　c. 64
b. 27　　d. 89

2. Average length of a professional football player's career, in years
a. 3.2　　c. 6.8
b. 5.1　　d. 8.2

3. Rank of drunk driving, among the most common reasons an American is arrested

a. 1 c. 3
b. 2 d. 4

4. Rank of the United States, among all countries, in arms sales to Somalia since 1985

a. 1 c. 5
b. 3 d. 7

5. Percentage of Jewish settlers on the West Bank who consider themselves "religious"

a. 8 c. 48
b. 28 d. 82

6. Price of a box of Cheerios in Japan

a. $1.20 c. $5.20
b. $3.20 d. $7.20

Purpose: To improve speaking and reading comprehension skills. Deliberate information and opinion gaps are created, then filled. Critical thinking and problem solving are encouraged. Depending on the students' level of proficiency, there is heavy or little reliance on their schemata.

Skills: speaking and reading.

Control: guided; less controlled for advanced students.

Level: intermediate and advanced.

Time: 5-10 minutes for class work; 10-15 minutes for pair work.

Materials: multiple choice quiz based on Harper's Index or any other quantifiable piece of knowledge.

Procedure:
1. Students take the pop quiz, discuss their answers in pairs and try to reach an agreement.

2. Answers are provided.
3. Students in pairs and with the instructor discuss whether or not they were surprised by the answer and why, why their guesses were higher or lower than the actual figure, etc.

Conclusion

Information gap tasks provide students with a real reason to communicate with each other. By administering the Pop Quiz I was able to generate some heated discussion among the students. This is just one of the many information gap activities that can be employed if one wants to bring reality into the classroom.

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Author

MEHMET ALI CICEKDAG, Faculty Training Specialist, Faculty and Staff Development Division, Curriculum and Instruction, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: cross-cultural communication, Middle Eastern studies.

REVIEWS

Multi-Dictionary, Hebrew from Scratch, Arabic for Living

Sadok Masliyah
Middle East School

EDNA LAUDEN AND LIORA WEINBACH. (1993). **Multi Dictionary Hebrew-Hebrew-English, English-Hebrew**. Cordova:Tel Aviv Press.

Linguistic concept and didactic approach of *Rav Milon* or 'Multi Dictionary' is based on various Hebrew-English dictionaries and on lists of most frequent words in broadcast and newspapers and textbooks. It includes expressions and idioms from a wide range of fields as well as common colloquialisms. Since the English-Hebrew part is presented as one of the dictionary's appendices (pp. 1-24), the lion's share of this dictionary is the Hebrew-Hebrew-English portion.

The most valued features of the Hebrew-Hebrew-English part are the structure as well as the cultural and linguistic information. Unlike many English-Hebrew dictionaries, *Rav Milon* explains in simple and practical Hebrew each entry, provides an average of two Hebrew synonyms. Current usage rather than chronology determines the order of multiple meanings. In addition, *Rav Milon* uses each Hebrew entry in a sentence and supplies the English meaning of each entry. However, the beginning learner cannot benefit from these sentences as much as the intermediate or the advanced learner does.

To aid learners in pronouncing the Hebrew entries and to expose them to the differences in Hebrew spelling methods, the authors introduced the Hebrew entries twice; first without vowel marks, then in fully vocalized spelling. Hebrew words in which the stress occurs on the syllable before the last are marked above the relevant syllable.

Like the conventional Hebrew-English dictionaries, *Rav Milon* lists the verbs according to the third-person-singular in the past tense. The derived verbs, including the passive ones, appear as separate entries. This approach avoids the difficulty of identifying the root letters of the derived verbs, and thus assists learners who lack sufficient knowledge of Hebrew grammar. *Rav Milon* provides the infinitives of verbs accompanied by the preposition, followed by the root letters, the category of the verb conjugation and the verb patterns in the present, the past, the future of the first and third persons of masculine singular and plural. It is unexplained why these forms are not introduced systematically. The imperative form is not always provided as in *bagad* 'betrayed,' *hitgonen* 'defended,' and *masar* 'handed over' (pp. 42, 175 and 379 respectively). Sometimes, the future pattern is not mentioned (*hishtalev* 'he integrated himself,' p.168*)*, or only one grammatical pattern is provided as in *hitbases*—'he established himself' (p.174). This leaves the learner wondering about the reasons for these omissions and inconsistencies.

Nouns are introduced in the singular masculine form, followed by grammatical gender, and since most of the singular nouns in Hebrew undergo some internal vowel changes in the plural form, the latter are provided with vowel marks. Adjectives are given first in the singular-masculine form, followed by singular feminine as well as plural forms at both genders. Hebrew compounds, which are essential in Hebrew-English dictionary and whose forms are self-explanatory, are not included as representing specific English terms. Thus, compound entries like, *basar bakar* 'beef,' lit. 'meat of cattle,' *basar egel* 'veal,' lit. 'meat of calf' and *basar keves*, 'meat of mutton' are excluded. Each of these words is listed separately.

The treatment of the prepositions is adequate. They are introduced with and without possessive suffixes and are exemplified in many sentences to reflect their various meanings.

What makes *Rav Milon* a unique and a useful dictionary, in particular, is its eight appendices, some of which are language related, and others serve as cultural sources. The first appendix contains English-Hebrew word lists by subjects. Most of these thematic lists of words are survival type; the remainder are related to instruction and include a list of Hebrew grammatical terminology, a list of Hebrew initials and abbreviations, the numbers, samples of verbs conjugation and declension of a few prepositions and nouns. The inclusion of these declensions and conjugations may be a convenience to non-Hebrew speaking users. Although the authors list this section in the table of content as the second appendix (pp. 742-748), but it appears as a part of the first appendix.

The value of the first appendix (pp. 716-741) lies in the abundance of lexical items and expressions learners are exposed to in various fields that they may encounter in daily interactions. The majority of these interactions are situational and include such subjects as clothes, restaurants, telephone, transportation, theater, exhibition, the calendar, the family, the movies, the military, the court of law, economics, government, greetings and blessings, animals, newspaper, etc.

Each list of subjects in this appendix is classified according to part of speech (nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs) or according to subject matter as 'in the Supermarket,' where the lexical items are arranged in groups according to content: dairy product, fruits, vegetables (p.721). One finds entries like 'internist,' 'dermatologist' and 'pediatrician' under the title 'specialists' 'pills;' 'drops,' and 'bandage' under-'medical supplies.' 'tumor', 'pus' and 'pneumonia,' under widespread diseases; 'clinic,' 'first aid' and 'pharmacy' under 'medical institutions;' 'delivery room', 'stretcher,' and 'blood test' under 'hospital.' Interesting to note the use of borrowed and innovative words in the subject of 'bank.' For example, the word *kasfomat* is a made-up compound word of *kesef* 'money' and the syllable *mat* of the English 'automatic') for ATM (Automatic

Teller Machines). The Hebrew equivalent of the English 'feedback,' *mashov*, is a new lexical item derived from the root *shuv* 'return' (p.722).

Short dialogues follow the lists of words. They usually contain a practical number of Hebrew slang, expressions, and idioms. Some of these dialogues contain grammatical mistakes that are common in the spoken Hebrew today, as in the questions *aize manot aharonot yesh*? (what kind of desserts do you have?) and *aize tokhniyot hisakhon yesh lakhem babank* (what kinds of saving plans do you have?), using *aize* instead of *ele* or *elo* (pp. 719 and 723).

The third appendix (pp. 749-58) deals with interpersonal communication in 15 situations. They are helpful for the foreign learners in their daily interactions as they prepare them to use these expressions and idioms in context. These modes of communications also reflect facets of the Israeli culture. Among these interpersonal communications are: how to begin and end conversations, how to complain, how to express an opinion, how to apologize, how to ask and inquire, how to invite and how to agree. They even have a section on 'between the sexes' which contains a lot of slang.

The fourth appendix (pp. 759-62) is a collection of the most prevalent medical terms in Hebrew used not only by physicians, but also by laymen. They are arranged in sections which list the symptoms and body parts associated with the diseases. In fact, this appendix is more than a list of entries, as it furnishes expressions and idioms which are frequently employed for each situation. The sections include names of common diseases (diabetes, jaundice), children diseases (measles, mumps), the gastrointestinal tract (gallbladder, liver, heartburn, nausea); the urogenital tract (kidney, prostate), dentistry (root, gums, toothache, sensitivity to cold), skin (rash, itch, eczema) or gynecology (uterus, breast, period, hemorrhage).

The importance of the fifth appendix (pp. 763-67), "Holidays and Customs" lies in the abundance of cultural references and expressions to Jewish holidays, to customs, and to traditions relevant to the Jewish cycle of life (circumcision, marriage, death, etc.). It also contains concepts associated with the Sabbath (Sabbath meal, day of rest), prayers and blessings (grace, benediction over the bread) and Jewish New Year (an apple dipped in honey, blowing the *shofar*- 'a ram's horn') etc.

The sixth appendix (pp. 767-785) is a small English-Hebrew dictionary which may be used as a quick reference. It lists only English verbs (including English passive verbs) and provides only the Hebrew infinitives and the perfect aspect of the third person masculine of each verb.

The seventh appendix (786-792) is short; it contains common Hebrew cognates, which enrich the active lexical items of the learner without making special efforts.

The eighth appendix (pp. 1-124, from left to right) is a special English-Hebrew dictionary. In listing the Hebrew entries, learners are referred to the page number where they first appeared in the Hebrew-Hebrew-English part of the dictionary, so that they can consult the example sentences in which the entries are used. Each entry has only one Hebrew meaning.

In summary, *Rav Milon* is a valuable dictionary for learners of Hebrew at all levels for its uniqueness and its practical and innovative approach, as it follows the common use of every day Israeli Hebrew and embodies useful information about Israeli culture. Undoubtedly, this dictionary will enlarge the scope of the Hebrew bilingual lexicography and expand the Hebrew vocabulary.

SHLOMIT CHAYAT, SARA ISRAELI, AND HILLA KOBLINER. (1990). **'Ivrit min ha-Hatkhala** (Hebrew from Scratch). Jerusalem: The Hebrew University. Pp. 224.

Hebrew from Scratch has been taught during the last two years in the beginning classes at the Defense Language Institute in Monterey, California. It replaces *Sifron La-Student A* published by the Hebrew University (Jerusalem, 1970). It is designed for teaching Hebrew to foreign students prior to their studying at the University.

Among the noticeable improvements in this book are introduction to the Hebrew alphabets in print and script as well as the addition of short cultural and authentic passages for reading. In addition, the appealing cover, the paper quality, the different fonts and the illustrations of this book are more attractive than those used in the *Sifron.*

The authors state in the preface that linguistic competence means a mastery of grammatical forms, syntactic structures, lexical items, and linguistic expressions. The authors gradually present these aspects and integrate them with each other.

Since the authors' approach is to teach Hebrew in Hebrew, there is no Hebrew-English dictionary. New words are listed at the end of each of the 67 lessons. The grammar is reduced to the minimum, though a variety of morphological features are explained by examples and reinforced by a variety of drills. In addition, each lesson is followed by demonstrating the salient syntactic features appearing in the passages or conversations. The lexical items are common and include frequent slang and useful idioms.

What makes this book especially interesting to the Hebrew learner is the meticulous selections of authentic cultural passages and the short survival conversations. These passages include a wide variety of topics, i, e., the Kibbutz, the Botanic garden in Israel, the Jewish New Year, the Israeli flag, the revival of the Hebrew language, Jericho, the horoscope, the use of computers, sleeping and dreams, American movies, Hebrew poems, ancient sayings and proverbs, to mention a few examples. The purpose of these passages is to reinforce a few lexical items in the reading texts. This kind of reinforcement is needed since most of the vocabulary seldom occurs again in the rest of the lessons.

The conversations are short and sound natural. They include situational topics for survival, such as, ordering food, buying stamps and clothes, calling a friend, soliciting information from the telephone operator, or complaining about malfunctioning of the telephone.

To strengthen grammatical points, vocabulary and syntactic features, each lesson offers a myriad of drills. These drills include the following:

a. True/False questions;
b. completion of a sentence with a word mentioned in a word list and open ended completion.
c. tell a sentence/story about a picture;
d. content questions
e. supplying a question for a given answer;
f. grammar drills (change sentences from masculine to feminine, from present to past, from singular to plural, etc.)
g. skimming and scanning the text for information.

There are also a few multiple choice questions, cloze readings and matching pictures with descriptions.

Hebrew from Scratch would have been a self-contained language book, had it come with cassettes for listening to the texts and conversations and had it included vocalized texts in addition to the unvocalized ones. The authors present only unvocalized texts since the student encounters such texts in real-life situations. This approach is challenging but it does not ensure correct pronunciation, and it may cause the student to forget the sounds of the Hebrew vowels. It should be considered, however, that some of the Hebrew vowels are represented by dots and other symbols placed under and above the characters. The authors, however, introduced the Hebrew vowels and their sounds and included, prior to the first lesson, a few reading exercises, but never employed them in the texts or drills except in the poems where the vowels were used originally.

Vocalized texts allow students to remember the sounds and to enable them to pronounce the words correctly when they look them up in the English-Hebrew dictionary. Thus instructors need to record some of the lessons for listening purposes and periodically provide the students with vocalized texts.

Hebrew from Scratch is still one of the best practical books designed for the beginner learner which easily enables the skillful instructors to utilize the instructional materials it contains, not only for the reading and writing skills, but also for the speaking and listening skills.

Mahmud Sini et al. **al-'Arabbiyyah lil-Hayaat** (Arabic for Living). Mecca vol. I (1982). Pp. 284. vol. II (1983). Pp. 444.

Al-'Arabiyyah lil-Hayaat consists of four volumes, of which the first two volumes are reviewed here. While these two volumes are devoted to teaching Arabic to the beginning learners, the third volume is geared to intermediate students and the fourth volume to advanced students. This series of books was compiled by well-known professors of Arabic at the University of King Sa'ud in Riyad.

Prior to their publication, they were tried out in some language institutions in Saudia Arabia, Sudan, and the Philippines. The Arabic departments at the Defense Language Institute in Monterey, California also used these two volumes for a short while.

A careful reader of volumes one and two of *Arabic for Living* notices the scientific modern and non-traditional approach that the authors followed when producing the units. The first volume includes a general preface, a brief explanation about the contents of the book, and rather extensive guidelines on how teachers should utilize the conversations and drills. It consists of five units, each of which consists of three lessons concentrating on one topic. Following each unit are conversations, drills, "test yourself" exercises, and a list of the new words and expressions accompanied by a few grammatical points. The units in the first volume have an average of 36 drills that use a limited amount of new vocabulary and grammatical patterns that are frequently drilled in the units. The reading texts in each unit are based on the conversations and reinforce the new lexical items used in the conversations. Attached to the first volume are two useful appendices. The first one consist of a list of words and idioms, and the second one presents the main purpose of the drills and the grammatical points.

The second volume is similar to the first one in structure, but contains more written and oral exercises. In addition, the appended list of the lexical items is arranged in such a way as to enable students to easily locate them in the original text.

The authors of the first two volumes of *Arabic for Living* employed a pedagogical method and an instructional approach that deviate entirely from many other books designed for teaching Arabic to non-Arabs. Apparently the authors skillfully adopted the natural approach method that has prevailed in the United States since the 1970's. This method claims, among other things, that the affective factors, such as a student's self-confidence and comfortable atmosphere for learning are primary forces that contribute to the acquisition of a second language. It also asserts that the learning of vocabulary is the key to comprehension and speech production, and it does not promote the teaching of grammar per se. Thus *Arabic for Living* does not explain any grammatical patterns, or provide verb conjugation charts, or lists of prepositions with suffixes that are usually included in the textbooks for teaching Arabic. Among the unexplained grammatical structures one finds in these volumes the following: The use of *min lil-tabyiin* that indicates the relation between the material and the article made of it (2/125), and the use of *al-ʻa'id* (the pronoun that refers to a previously mentioned noun). Other unexplained grammatical points include the superlative (1/197), the use of *kam* followed by the accusative indefinite noun (2/259), ordinal and cardinal numerals (1/269, 2/97), and agreement between nouns and adjectives.

Another noteworthy feature in *Arabic for Living* is the systematic and gradual presentation of grammar that allows students to practice the patterns in conversations at first mechanically, and later in a communicative way. Since the declared purpose of these two volumes is to teach students to use Arabic in a natural manner, it is no wonder that the arrangement of the lessons in each unit does not follow the traditional method in which each lesson is devoted to teaching a grammatical pattern or particular feature in the structure or morphology of Arabic. Rather, the lessons are structured according to topics and real communicative situations that students may confront in their daily life. Furthermore, the use of the present tense before the past tense (a novel practice not followed traditionally in any textbook for teaching Arabic) gives the lessons of *Arabic for Living* vigor and vitality and enhances the speaking skill of the students.

Contrary to the traditional method in which most class hours are devoted to translation, explanations of grammar, and reading passages, the methodology followed in *Arabic for Living* aims at developing and integrating listening comprehension and speaking skills, in particular, and the reading and writing skills in general.

The lesson materials in *Arabic for Living* are primarily based on authentic conversations, conducted in various daily situations. The sentences are short and simple at first, but gradually become longer and more complex. Most of the texts are partially vocalized and the language used is a simplified version of Modern Standard Arabic (hereafter referred to as "MSA"). Apparently the authors chose lexical items and expressions from MSA that foreign learners can use in daily conversations after applying slight modifications. The following are some examples which illustrate this point:

Kariim: *Hello!*

Saalem: *Hello!*

Kariim: *How are you?*

Saalem: *Fine, praise be to God, and you, how are you? (1/29)*

Most of the words in this short conversation are common in everyday speech, and the expression *kayfa l-haal?* (lit. 'how is the condition?') is impersonal and is used instead of the complex noun-plus-suffix, structure '*kayfa haaluka?*' ('how are you'?) (1/29)

The Seller: *Welcome! May I help you?*
The Customer: *Good evening! Do you have any good coats, please?*
The Seller: *Just a second please...* (2/127)

The expression *ay khidma* (lit. 'any service') is used both in colloquial speech and MSA for 'May I help you'?

When introducing a conversation of situation, the authors say: "The post office is crowded, the employees there are busy all the time, and work day and night" (2/206). The common expression in conversations '*bil-layl wan-nahaar*' for 'day and night' is used instead of the MSA expression *laylan wa-nahaaran.*

In the exchange between a patient and an x-ray technician, the latter says: "The two technicians who took pictures of the kidneys want to do another one ... Come tomorrow!" (2/311). The word '*amal* (lit. 'do') which is frequent in speech, is used instead of the MSA word *qiyaam.*

Traffic officer: "You made a signal violation. Don't you know that the yellow light means slow down and prepare to stop?" (2/341). The verb used for 'slow down!' *haddi'* is used more in colloquial speech than in MSA, where *khaffif* is used.

To avoid the use of the literary jussive indicative form *(al-mudaari 'al-majzuum)* and to make the conversation closer to normal speech, the present indicative is used instead of the imperative, as shown in the following two exchanges:

Sulayman: Would you please do this analysis?

The Physician: Do you have with you a letter from your doctor?

Sulayman: Here it is.

The Physician: You go (*tadhhabu* instead of *idhhab*) with this paper... (2/291)

The Pharmacist: Sorry, these injections are not available now.

The Patient: What do I do, then?

The Pharmacist: You buy them (*tashtariiha* instead of *ishtariha*) from any other pharmacy...(2/299)

The excessive use of the verbal nouns and the avoidance of using the *an al-masdariyyah* (*an* of the infinitive), which is not used in colloquial speech indicates that the authors attempted to make the MSA which they used, as close as possible to the spoken language. Only once, at the end of volume two, did the *an al-masdariyyah* appear (2/381).

Clearly the exercises and activities in *Arabic for Living* are designed to promote communication and proficiency in at least the oral/aural skills, facilitate the learning of Arabic in context, and help students create with it. These exercises and class activities are intended to be conducted first mechanically, then functionally, and finally communicatively. Some of the oral drills feature repetitions, substitutions, changing gender, number and tense, and progress from short and simple utterances to long and complicated ones. On order that students be fully engaged in the conversations, they are asked to converse in Arabic not only with the teacher, but also with each other. Sometimes students are required to assume the teacher's role or conduct conversations in pairs, ask and answer questions, and give and receive instructions. In other words, the approach is communicative and the student, not the teacher, becomes the focus of learning. This is a breakthrough in the methodology of teaching Arabic to non-Arabs.

The communicative drills facilitate the fluent speaking of Arabic and enable students to talk about current events or narrate a personal story by presenting situations that they may encounter in real life. For example, students are asked what to do or say in the following situations: Asking a receptionist in a hotel for the room key (2/66), asking for a taxi to the airport (2/66), asking a passer-by about the location of a mail box (2/205), asking for a money order (2/214), telling about a friend who called (2/250). A few examples follow where students are required to tell a story:

> You were in great pain and your friends took you to the hospital where the physician checked you and wrote a prescription for you... What happened to you? (2/276)
>
> You visited a friend who told you about his job. What did he tell you? (2/282)
>
> When you travel, you have to spend a lot of time waiting around in the airport. Some people there are departing travelers, others have just arrived, and still others are waiting for their friends... Tell about such scenes in the airport. (2/37)

The drills in *Arabic for Living* are of various types:

- The student is asked to provide the question for an answer:

  ————————?

  He is an accountant (1/86).

- Fill the missing word:

  The Principal:————————.

  The Student: My papers are in the briefcase. Here they are! (1/97)

- Multiple choice:

  What is your profession?

  A. I am from Riyad.

  B. I am a nurse.

  C. I am coming from Riyad (1/99)

- Fill in the blank:

  Ahmad bought three———— (a watch, watches, pencils) (2/206)

- An open-ended question:
The student is asked to provide five answers to the question, "This man is going to the post office. Why"? (2/203)

- True/false answers based on reading passages (2/54)

While the authors very carefully followed a standardized structure in designing *Arabic for Living*, they did not pursue—especially in volume one—a unified system in writing the letter *yaa'* at the end of some words. For example, *yaa' al-nisba ('yaa'* of belonging') is written once with two dots and once without it, once with *shaddah* (a sign indicating the doubling of the radical) and once without it. This occurs also in the proper name 'Ali, and in lexical items like *shay'* (thing) and *shaay* (tea). The *ya*s that terminates the definite active and passive participles of verbs with weak final radical (*an-nadi, al-maqli, al-mushtari*) and the *yaa*s of such verbs in the imperfect indicative (Form VIII, *ashtari, yashtari*, etc.) are also inconsistent. If the purpose of these various spellings had been to show students that they may run into such different spellings, then a note to this effect should have been made by the authors. There are also a few grammatical mistakes, such as the word *naadin* ('club') in the nominative and genitive cases being written as *naadi* (1/152), and *i'ti* (give!) instead of *a'ti* (Imperative Form IV) (1/281). In addition, the letter *shin* in the second part of the compound cardinal numerals 11, 12, 14, and 15 carries no vowel when used with masculine nouns, but it should carry the vowel *fathah* (1/269, 271 and 282).

The use of only Saudi city names, currency, and newspapers gives the two volumes a local character. This, plus the fact that the lexical items in a given unit do not occur in the rest of the units, may be overcome by providing supplementary materials to the students. However, these minor shortcomings do not detract from the value and effectiveness of the lessons of these two volumes, which follow a daring and a novel approach to teaching Arabic to non-Arabs. At the same time, *Arabic for Living* fills the gap between the Arabic spoken dialects and MSA, as well as serving a lively vehicle for the integration of the four skills.

Author

SADOK MASLIYAH, Chief, Hebrew Branch, Middle East School, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: comparative Arabic and Hebrew linguistics, teaching methodolgies and Hebrew studies.

Teacher Education and Curriculum
at
TESOL

Sabine Atwell
Middle East School

This year's Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) Conference was held in Long Beach , California, from 28 March to 1 April. The conference was attended by approximately 8,000 people from 76 different countries. It provided a wide array of presentations, papers, plenary sessions, discussion groups and demonstrations in applied linguistics and research, computer-assisted language learning (CALL), English as a FL, English for specific purposes, English as a second language, intensive English programs, and teacher education and program administration. Additionally, many sessions of the conference provided a glimpse into a future multicultural US society with sessions on language concerns of refugees, language education in a variety of bilingual settings, and ways of creating thinkers in classrooms rather than consumers of lessons.

I attended sessions that focused on teacher education, cross-cultural issues in teacher education and strategies that hold the promise of producing thinking learners in the classroom. I will highlight some sessions I found most interesting.

A symposium led by Donald Freeman on "Transfer in Teacher Education," raised the issue how teachers can transform *knowing* into *doing*. Freeman questioned whether learning can be converted from one setting into another. He pointed out that the process of transfer, which narrows the gap between theory and practice, may be flawed.

Next, he outlined two traditional models, behavorial and cognitive. The former focuses on teacher hands-on training and the latter—on teacher knowledge. After rejecting both of them, he offered a different model of looking at teacher education. His model "Knowing What to Do" focused on the social context of school and classroom settings and the interpretative ability to decide within a specific setting. According to him, this model would enable teachers to manipulate particular circumstances to provide learning support for large numbers of individuals that have different needs. Freeman suggested that an aim for teacher education may be the notion of *participation* in which knowing progressively arises out of doing as a teacher works with a supportive mentor in a particular context and tries out concepts in a concrete way. The aim of such an in-service teacher training program would be to construct an understanding of a specific instructional context through frequent discussions and supportive interaction with an experienced mentor. Certain conclusions such as the need to bridge the gap between teacher training and the setting in which teaching takes place may also be instructive for DLI.

The other presenters of this session emphasized that there is a crucial need to get answers from teachers to the following:

- Where they got what was important to them?
- How they found out what was not useful?
- How they started new things and left others behind?
- How do they breach the norms of schooling hierarchies and dated views on teaching?

Finally, they pointed out that a training program to teach particular skills is not enough for new as well as resistant and "dated teachers" because teachers need to develop a sense of membership in a larger professional community and be prepared for a wide variety of settings.

In "Creating a Community of Thinkers" Anna Uhl Chamot, Adjunct Professor of Linguistics at Georgetown University and coauthor of the book "Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition," explained a model for the cognitive academic language learning approach (CALLA). Her premise was that due to technology all US students need critical and analytical thinking skills to perform routine jobs in the future. Since learning a language can be a tool in developing thinking skills, students need to understand the cognitive, affective, and social strategies more effectively. Chamot presented five instructional principles necessary for students to become effective thinkers:

- use of students' prior knowledge

  Teachers can build it through brainstorming, discussions, mind mapping, and preparing for the learning task.

- meaningful learning task

  Since trivial learning tasks and topics tend to elicit superficial thinking, curriculum specialists and materials developers need to design a variety of meaningful learning tasks.

- interactive teaching and learning

  To make teaching collaborative, teachers maintain an ongoing dialogue and inquiry with the students. For example, they ask students to explain how they formed an answer when trying to learn something difficult.

- learning processes and strategies

> Teachers can show students how to learn in new ways. They can model these strategies, e.g. , the strategy of previewing or getting organized for the next learning task. They can preview a unit by looking with their students at titles, or the table of contents and by making some assumptions.

- self-evaluation

> Students reflect on their own accomplishments through discussion, and journal writing.

Myriam Met of Montgomery County Schools chaired a session on "Materials Development: Preparing Successful Learners in a New Millenium" in which the current status of educational reforms and challenges for materials developers were explored. The speakers who followed her pointed out that many current reforms in education are based on a *constructivist* view of learning claiming that " knowledge is constructed in a classroom with all of the learners through unpredictable conversations out of which understanding and learning emerges" and thus learners are seen as active makers of meaning. When creating materials for the classroom, the developers wonder how to predict these conversations and write them. The static nature of textbooks was contrasted with this dynamic learning process. Nevertheless, presenters felt that textbooks have a powerful effect on what is learned and how. They also defended the view that instructional materials can improve instruction and serve as models for novice teachers. Furthermore, they pointed out that technology and computer-based, particularly multi-media, play an ever increasing role in materials development because they allow for individualized interactive instruction of a diverse student population.

Since I am interested in collaborative learning, I decided to attend a session titled "Making Groups Work: Turning Problems into Opportunities." The presenters started out by quoting J. Sharkey in *Helping Students Become Better Learners* (1995) that adequately describes the complexity of the teaching and learning processes:

> There is no absolute formula for helping students become better learners as the process is different with each group of students. One can take guidance from Freire (1983) who stresses that an experience must be reinvented each time, with each new context, it cannot be transplanted blindly from one context to the next. However, the successful process will always involve teachers and will follow a cycle of increasing awareness through analyzing and experimenting with new strategies, reflecting, synthesizing and applying new knowledge. (*TESOL Journal,* 4 [2], p. 22).

Many teachers know that group work in the classroom is beneficial because students can learn from each other as well as from the teacher and learn to work together to solve problems. However, since group work is risky, teachers must be flexible to make it successful. The main characteristics of group work are: (a) student attitudes; (b) conduciveness of tasks to group work; (c) teacher's ability to ascertain readiness for group work.

Next participants were asked to report on a group activity that has not worked for them and were given a chart to analyze the causes. The chart was designed as a labyrinth of possible reasons: students may lack motivation, interest in the topic, or confidence in one another; teachers may lack direction, guidance, purpose for group work; curriculum may be in conflict with the students, the task may be not appropriate for group work (there may be a problem with maturity/ age/ gender/ intercultural communication, energy levels, differing abilities, or learning styles of students). The workshop concluded by giving tips on how students can assume roles when performing group work as well as assess how it worked for them.

At the conference I gathered interesting handouts and instruments for assessment of teachers that I will gladly share.

Author

SABINE ATWELL, Curriculum Coordinator, Middle East School, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: cross-cultural training, language acquisition, curriculum development, professional development of teachers.

Calendar of Events*

1995

7 - 11 August, *American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese*, San Diego. Information AATSP, Gunter Hall 106, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639; Fax (303) 351-1095.

7 - 9 September, *EUROCALL 95*, Valencia. Information Ana Gimeno, Departamento de Idiomas, Universidad Politecnica de Valencia, Camino de Vera s/n 46071 Valencia, Spain; +34 6 387-7530 ext. 5300/5301, Fax +34 6 387-7539, Email agimeno@idm.upv.es.

10 -12 September, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, Exeter. Information Daphne Morton, Department of French, The University, Exeter EX4 4QH, United Kingdom;+44 19 392-264221, Fax +44 19 392-264377, Email k.c.cameron@exeter.ac.uk.

15 - 16 September, *Reading in the University in First, Second and Foreign Languages*, Toulouse. Information Gail Taillefer, Department des Langues et Civilisations, Universit des Sciences Sociales, Place Anatole-France, 31042 Toulouse, France; Fax +33 61-22-94-08.

21 - 24 September, *German Studies Association*, Chicago. Information Helga A. Welsh, Department of Politics, Reynolda Station, Box 7568, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; (910) 759-5452, Fax (910) 759-6104, Email welsh@wfu.edu.

October dates to be announced, *Iowa Foreign Language Association*, Des Moines. Information Paul Hoekstra, Bureau of Curriculum & Instruction, Grimes State Office Building, Des Moines, IA 50319.

5 - 7 October, *Purdue University Conference on Romance Languages, Literatures and Film*, West Lafayette. Information Department of Foreign Languages, 1359 Stanley Coulter Hall, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907-1359; (317) 494-7691, Fax (317) 496-1700, Email rla@vm.cc.purdue.edu.

5 - 7 October, *Mountain Interstate Foreign Language Conference*, Radford. Information Leonor Ulloa, Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, P.O.Box 6937, Radford University, Radford, VA 24142; (703) 831-5120, Fax (703) 831-5970, Email lulloa@ruacad.ac.runet.edu.

6 - 7 October, *Pennsylvania Modern Language Association*, Pittsburgh. Information John Pearce, Muhlenberg College, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Allentown, PA 18104-5586.

6 - 7 October, *Classical Association of the Atlantic States with New Jersey Classical Association*, Atlantic City. Information John C. Traupman, 201 Tower Lane, Penn Valley, PA 19072-1127; (610) 664-5487.

6 - 9 October, *Second Language Research Forum*, Ithaca. Information Nuria Lopez Ortega, Cornell University, Department of Modern Languages and Linguistics,

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Morrill Hall, Ithaca, NY 14853-4701; Email slrf95@cornell.edu.

7 - 8 October, *Carolinas Symposium on British Studies*, Boone. Information Jacqueline Gmuca, Department of English, Coastal Carolina University, Conway, SC 29526.

12 - 14 October, *Penn State Conference on the Acquisition of Spanish as a First or Second Language*, State College. Information William R. Glass, Pennsylvania State University, Department of Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese, 352 N. Burrowes Building, University Park, PA 16802; Email wrg3@psuvm.psu.edu.

12 - 14 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina*, Greensboro. Information Wayne Figart, 204 N. 16th St., Wilmington, NC 28401; (919) 763-4009.

13 - 14 October, *Washington Association for Foreign Language Teaching*, Portland. Information Rosemary Leiva, 1412 S. 334d Ave., Yakima, WA 98902; (509) 457-0966 or (509) 965-2040.

18 - 20 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Dakota*, Fargo. Information Herbert Boswau, PO box 8198, Grand Forks, ND 58202-8198.

19 - 20 October, *Minnesota Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, location to be announced. Information Millie Mellgren, 3055 Rosewood Lane, Plymouth, MN 55441.

19 - 21 October, *Classical Association of the Empire State*, Syracuse. Information Jill Crooker, 15 Sutherland Street, Pittsford, NY 14534.

20 - 22 October, *New York State Association of Foreign Language Teachers*, Kiamesha Lake. Information Helene Combopiano, 71 Grand Boulevard, Binghamton, NY 13905.

26 - 28 October, *Texas Foreign Language Association*, Austin. Information Eugenia Simons, 1320 Modiste Drive, Houston, TX 77055.

26 - 28 October, *South Central Modern Language Association*, Houston. Information Executive Director, SCMLA, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843-4227.

26 - 29 October, *American Association for the Advancement of Slavic Studies*, Washington. Information AAASS, Stanford University, Jordan Quad/Acacia Building, Stanford, CA 94305-4130; (415) 723-9668.

2 - 5 November, *Japan Association of Language Teachers*, location to be announced. Information JALT, Glorious Tokyo #301, 2-32-10 Nishinippori, Arakawa-ku Tokyo 116, Japan; +81 3 3802-7121, Fax +81 3 3802-7122.

3 - 4 November, *National Association of Self-Instructional Language Programs*, Washington. Information NASILP, Critical Languages, 022-38, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19122.

18 - 20 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages with American Association of Teachers of German*, Anaheim. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275.

30 November - 2 December, *Formal Description of Slavic Languages*, Leipzig. Information Gerhild Zybatow, Universität Leipzig, Philologische Fakultät, Institut für Slavistik, Augustusplatz 9, 04109 Leipzig, Germany; +0341 719 2499/3003, Fax +0341 719 3002, Email slavlips@rzaix340.rz.uni-leipzig.de.

5-8 December, *Conference on Computers in Education*, Singapore. Information CCE 95/AACE, P.O. Box 2966, Charlottesville, VA 22902; (804) 973-3987, Fax (804) 978-7449, Email aace@virginia.edu.

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages & Literatures*, Chicago. Information AATSEEL, Russian & Slavic Languages, University of Arizona ML 340, Tucson, AZ 85721.

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America*, Chicago. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212) 477-9863.

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25-27 January, *Multiple Media for Language Learning*, Stirling, Scotland. Information Val Hamilton, Scottish CILT, University of Stirling, Stirling FK9 4LA, Scotland, UK; Fax (+44) 1786 467632, Email vrhl@stirling.ac.uk.

29 February-2 March, *Southern Conference on Language Teaching with Alabama Association of Foreign Language Teachers*, Mobile. Information Lee Bradley,Valdosta State University, Valdosta, GA 31698; (912) 333-7358, Fax (912) 333-7389, Email lbradley@grits.valdosta.peachnet.edu.

1-3 March, *Texas Foreign Language Association*, Midland. Information TFLA, 1320 Modiste Drive, Houston, TX 77055; (713) 468-4959.

5-8 March, *National Association of Independent Schools*, Washington. Information Claire Whalen, NAIS, 1620 L Street NW, Washington, DC 20036.

11-16 March, *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*, Washington. Information GURT, Georgetown University School of Languages and Linguistics, 303 Intercultural Center, Washington, DC 20057-1067; (202) 687-5726, Fax (202) 687-5712, Email gurt@guvax.georgetown.edu.

26-30 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, Chicago. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2705; (703) 518-2521, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email jennifer@tesol.edu.

28-31 March, *Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Louisville. Information CSCTFL, Madison Area Technical College, 3550 Anderson Ave., Madison, WI 53704; (608) 246-6573, Fax (608) 246-6880.

11-13 April, *Southeastern Council on Latin American Studies*, Miami. Information Melvin S. Arrington, Jr., Modern Languages, University of Mississippi, University, MS 38677; (601) 232-7731, Fax (601) 232-7033.

11-13 April, *Southwest Conference on Language Teaching*, Albuquerque. Information Joann Pompa, Mountain Pointe High School, 4201 E. Knox Road, Phoenix, AZ 85044; (602) 759-8449 Ext. 3036, Fax (602) 759-8743.

11-14 April, *Association for Asian Studies*, Honolulu. Information Association for Asian Studies, 1 Lane Hall, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109.

18-20 April, *Russian Modernism and Its European Context*, Lubbock. Information Lewis Tracy, Texas Tech University, Department of Classical and Modern Languages and Literatures, Box 42071, Lubbock, TX 79409-2071; (806) 742-3286, Email pvlew@ttacs1.ttu.edu.

18-21 April, *Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, New York. Information Northeast Conference, St. Michael's College, 29 Ethan Allen Avenue, Colchester, VT 05446.

22-24 April, RELC Regional Seminar on Language Classrooms of Tomorrow: Issues and Responses, Singapore. Information Yolanda Beh, Library and Information Center, 30 Orange Grove Rd, Singapore 1025, Republic of Singapore, Tel. 737-9044. Telex. RS 55598 RELC.

25-27 April, *Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages*, Tacoma. Information Ray Verzasconi, PNCFL, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97331-4603; Email verzascor@cla.orst.edu.

26-27 April, *Classical Association of the Atlantic States*, Baltimore. Information Sister Therese Marie Dougherty, Notre Dame College of Baltimore, 4701 N. Charles Street, Baltimore, MD 21210; (301) 435-0100.

26-28 April, *California Foreign Language Teachers Association*, Sacramento. Information Hal Wingard, 6450 Lance Way, San Diego, CA 92120.

July dates to be announced, *American Association of Teachers of French*, France. Information AATF, 57 E. Armory Avenue, Champaign, IL 61820.

4-9 August, *International Association of Applied Linguistics*, Jyvskyl, Finland. Information Udo O.H. Jung, Language Centre, University of Bayreuth, D-95440 Bayreuth, Germany; (0921) 553595, Fax (0921) 553594, Email udo.jung@uni-bayreuth.de.

29-31 August, *EUROCALL 96*, Szombathely, Hungary. Information June Thompson,CTI Centre for Modern Languages, University of Hull, Hull HU6 7RX, United Kingdom; Email eurocall@hull.ac.uk.

17-18 October, *Minnesota Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, location to be announced. Information Millie Mellgren, 3055 Rosewood Lane, Plymouth, MN 55441.

18-20 October, *New York State Association of Foreign Language Teachers*, Kiamesha Lake. Information Helene Combopiano, 71 Grand Boulevard, Binghamton, NY 13905.

18-20 October, *Texas Foreign Language Association*, Houston. Information TFLA, 1320 Modiste Drive, Houston, TX 77055; (713) 468-4959.

23-25 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Dakota*, Bismarck. Information Herbert Boswau, PO box 8198, Grand Forks, ND 58202-8198.

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11-15 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, Orlando. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2705; (703) 518-2521, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email jennifer@tesol.edu.

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10-13 April, *Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Columbus. Information CSCTFL, Madison Area Technical College, 3550 Anderson Ave., Madison, WI 53704; (608) 246-6573, Fax (608) 246-6880.

5-7 August, *Problems of Teaching Modern Hebrew*, Jerusalem. Information Ben-Zion Fischler, Council on the Teaching of Hebrew, P.O.B. 7413, Jerusalem 91073, Israel.

7-11 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina*, Winston-Salem. Information Wayne Figart, PO Box 739, Wilmington, NC 28402-0739; (910) 763-5733.

21-23 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Nashville. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275.

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September dates to be announced, *International Congress of Slavists*, Cracow. Information Robert Rothstein, Department of Slavic Languages, Herter Hall, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003-3940.

27-31 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina*, Winston-Salem. Information Wayne Figart, PO Box 739, Wilmington, NC 28402-0739; (910) 763-5733.

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Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit a previously unpublished article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession. *Dialog on Language Instruction* accepts only original manuscripts with the understanding that they have not been submitted for publication elsewhere.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th Ed., 1994), available from the American Psychological Association, P. O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and list findings. The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References*. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

> Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16 (1), pp. 93-95.
>
> Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of the manuscript should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g., (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript. Notes should be used for substantive information only, and they should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript. Subsequently they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes*.

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, video tapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but brief statement of the works contents and a critical assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8.5 x 11 in. paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1.25 in. on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized. Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An authors name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLI), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

Author

JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306. Interests: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

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Each author will be informed of the evaluation results. In general, a manuscript will be accepted for publication if two anonymous readers recommend acceptance, and, by the same token, manuscripts not recommended by the readers for publication will be rejected. In cases in which one reader recommends acceptance, and the second one, rejection—a third reader will be asked to review the manuscript.

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A manuscript accepted for publication may be accepted "as is" or may require certain revisions which may target the need to consider other sources, or to elaborate on a certain point; or, finally, may address such minor details as a typo or a lack of citation. In the latter case the author is asked to revise it and subsequently the editor checks whether the author complied thoroughly with the guidance.

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Frequently the manuscripts are rejected due to such major flaws as:

- inappropriate / unsuitable topic for DLI
- lack of purpose
- lack of organization
- poor quality of writing
- lack of applicability to instruction

The editor duly informs the author that the manuscript is unacceptable for publication. Normally this finding ends the revision process.

In some cases, an author whose manuscript was already rejected decides to revise the manuscript thoroughly and to resubmit it for publication. Since the quality of the version is unpredictable, no promises can be issued to the author regarding publication.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to *Dialog on Language Instruction*, ATTN: ATFL-DCI-C (Editor), Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized. Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An authors name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLI), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

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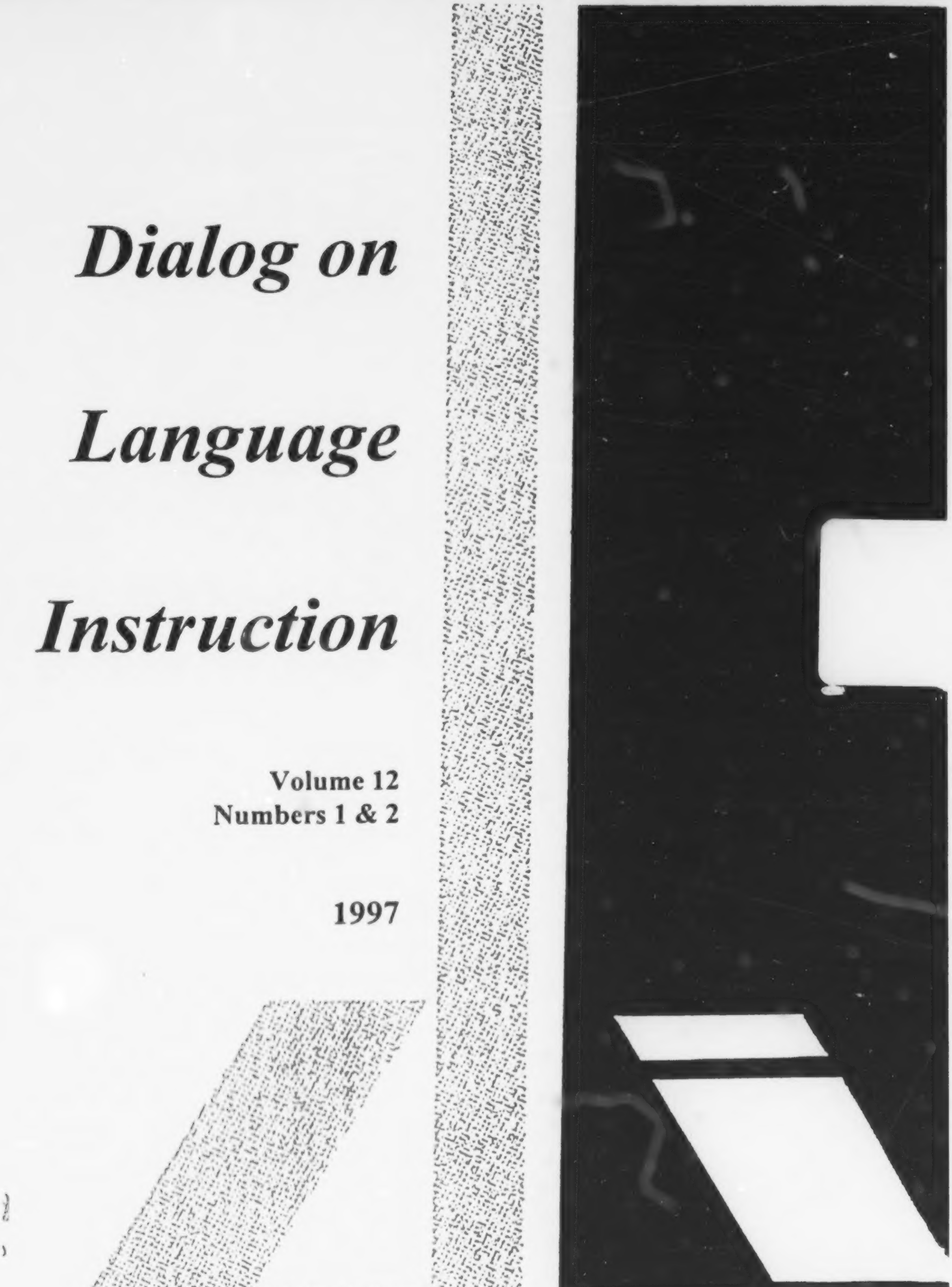

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on

Language Instruction

Editor

Lidia Woytak

1997

Volume 12 · Numbers I & 2

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1997 · Volume 12 · Numbers I & 2

Dialog on Language Instruction is an occasional internal publication of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) and part of its professional development program. Its primary function is to promote professional dialog by increasing opportunities to share knowledge among DLIFLC faculty and staff and by encouraging professional communication within the worldwide Defense Language Program.

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DANIEL D. DEVLIN
Colonel, United States Army
Commander and Commandant

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Dialog on Language Instruction
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
ATTN: Lidia Woytak, Editor (APAJ)
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944 - 5006
Telephone: 408 242-5638
DSN: 878-5638
Fax: 408 242-5850

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Computer Roles in Language Teaching and Learning
Let the Dialog Expand—Robustly!

Roderic A. Gale
Associate Provost

Exciting, innovative, and challenging times are upon us in the foreign language education and training community! "Today" in many ways and certainly "tomorrow" across the board we are on the threshold of opening more and much larger doors to exploiting the power of the computer. The result will, as a minimum, put another set of tools in the teacher's toolbox. More importantly, computers—used correctly—will free up time to better employ the most valuable, most powerful, and most creative teaching resource of all: people who serve as teachers.

Our challenges are to determine appropriate philosophical and operational roles for computers, then to develop and use those resources.

The very nature of this journal, *Dialog on Language Learning,* can help the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) and the foreign language education community in general meet these challenges. Many concepts for the use of computers are already being discussed and developed in several organizations within the Institute. In fact, computers to some extent are being used in many of our language programs and all of our end-of-program Final Learning Objective (FLO) testing and evaluation.

However, these projects too often appear to be developed on an ad hoc or personal initiative basis rather than as components to the incremental implementation of a philosophy or operational plan for the use of computers or computer-assisted language instruction (CALI). DLIFLC's Commandant, COL Daniel D. Devlin, is an eager participant in this process to explore and develop means by which computers can come to the aid of learners and teachers alike. Two of his visions for the use of computers, computerized homework and computerized training, have been discussed with various visitors to and members of the Institute since early 1996.

A conceptual summary of them is shown below, though perhaps not as accurately explained as is done by the Commandant himself. Please do note that any misrepresentations herein of his concepts are unintentional, but in themselves perhaps lend value to the dialog he is trying to stimulate.

Nevertheless, efforts of educators already on the leading edges of technology and language teaching may be reinforced by these ideas. Perhaps even more importantly, these concepts should spur on others who innovate as well as implement improvements to the language education process. The 1991 issue of *Applied Language Learning* (Volume 2, Number 2) had articles on the technological impact on language pedagogy (Nina Garrett and Sue K. Otto), implementation and management of instructional technology (Robert Ariew and Donald C. Holznagel), and software and hardware for language training (James C. Pusack and Michael D. Bush). Additionally the 1995 issue of *Applied Language Learning* (Volume 5, Number 2) includes Lydie E. Meunier's article on computers in cooperative learning. Past issues of *Dialog on Language Learning* have had articles addressing some of the innovations and successes (e.g., Kiril Boyadjieff and Steve Koppany, 1995, Volume 11). These are good beginnings, but we need to discuss these ideas much more.

The use of this DLIFLC forum is not to state what should be done. The intention is to jump-start our community into a robust discourse and aggressive plan of action: to think, to plan, to act—to do the right thing!

Computerized Homework

Proficiency-based global language programs such as those used by the DLIFLC should not focus on lengthy vocabulary list memorization, exhaustive grammar-rule development, or extensive dialog drills. However, these features of language learning, in moderation, have places in the language learner's proficiency development when done at the right time and in the right way. Certainly the teacher in the classroom has far better things to do with the limited time available than to teach vocabulary, present grammar, and lead drills. Classroom time itself is too precious to devote to these activities.

Yet how can the right amount of this somewhat mundane work be incorporated at the right time into the curriculum? Perhaps computers and CALI conducted at the time and place are the resources to exploit. If so, for what, when, and how?

What? Perhaps the very items that could be done by a teacher, but need not be done by a teacher, are the first candidates to shift to the CALI medium. Prime examples are those already mentioned: vocabulary, grammar, and dialogs.

When? Certainly not during time when teachers are available to work with the student! We must strive to increase the quality of student-teacher contact time, not reduce it. This means much of CALI normally should not be done during the part of the teacher work day at school. In fact, since the pace of most learning through CALI is controlled by the student, the time period to use CALI should also be controlled by the student. At 5 o'clock in the afternoon? At 5 o'clock in the morning? During lunch? On a school night or on the weekend? If done through a machine it doesn't matter when as long as the student has access to that machine (but that access is another matter entirely).

Some of the material would no doubt be self-learning with the computer presenting information and activities to the student, the student responding to that stimulus, the program assessing the response, and closing by the program giving feedback to the student. The role for the teacher, however, would not disappear regarding CALI homework. Rather, it would be improved by focusing on where the student needs help, then precisely prescribing or presenting the information or activities needed to correct the areas diagnosed as needing improvement. This approach would be a huge improvement over the way in which most homework is approached by many teachers in that the teacher must review all the material the student did to see where the teacher needs to give help. Too often this results in homework being assigned, but inadequately reviewed because it is just too much work.

Consider one scenario that could take place with the right homework done the right way. First, the student receives an assignment and a completion date (a day, a week—it doesn't matter). Then, working on the student's own schedule outside the classroom, the student does the homework with the results stored in the software. Next, on the morning the work is due, the teacher pulls up a by-exception report on areas in which the students need to improve. Finally, the teacher tailors coverage of that material or activities as part of the academic day. Now that's an effective way to use homework in class time!

How? Certainly all this could be done by pressing and issuing CD ROMs for every student, having students train using their own disks, and having the teacher aggregate the completed work for review and assessment. However, perhaps a better way exists: by students receiving and completing homework using servers accessed via fiber optic cable or use of modems installed in their quarters. Thus, not only would the cost of pressing CDs be eliminated, the time and effort needed to make changes to materials would do the same. Further, once the changes were made to the servers' programs, all users (around the world) would have instantaneous access to the new material, thereby avoiding the need, cost, and time to ship new CDs to users.

Computerized Training

Computers' roles can extend far beyond developing vocabulary, explaining and demonstrating grammar rules, and presenting a diversity of dialog scenarios. Within the nature of the work done using a computer (in or out of the classroom), would it be possible to develop a two-sided machine, not unlike the human brain itself? One side would be used for initial and continuing evaluation and development of the student's ability. That is, test, teach and test the learner.

What would the machine test, what would it teach, and how would it know what to do in either situation? The answers are found in the other side of the machine's brain. It would be used initially to present learning events, then adjust subsequent events to what and how the student responds to them. In essence, the other side would teach itself to adapt to the individual student with which it is working at any particular time. Thus, as students learn, so does the machine helping them to do so. Is this computer-adaptive teaching? Perhaps.

In both sides of the computer the process is the same: assess to determine the precise point at which to begin building up competency—then do the improvement. Only two real unknowns need to be determined. The first is at what level to begin the upward spiral of teaching. The second is how "fast" to move up through that spiral. This approach to teaching is not new. What is new, at least at DLIFLC, is to apply this approach to proficiency-based language learning using a computer. Can it teach real proficiency? Probably not, but the answer to that question must be made by the experts in what *can* be done (not the experts in what *has been* done). In any case, the time has come to use computers *to some extent* in developing proficiency in every language program within the Institute. Our teachers and students need this tool!

So far, only the side of the computer that interfaces with the student has been discussed. What about the other side, the side in which the computer interfaces with itself? It really gets interesting here, and, perhaps like the human brain itself, this side will evolve more slowly and independently than the first.

Here's how it may work. The program is initially set with predetermined information and activities determined by curriculum and evaluation developers. Then, based on an on-going interaction with the students, the program expands and adapts its original portfolio of information and activities. The computer learns to teach!

What resources would it use to learn without needing a curriculum- or evaluation-developer to reprogram it? It uses the same types of resources the linguist uses to learn: the worldwide pockets, nodes, systems, and linkages available through the Internet (to include information and activities developed by DLIFLC itself and which are available through the Internet). Thus, for the language learner (student or computer) the Internet is not just a seemingly endless set of sites that can be accessed, it is the means to access them as well.

This information and activity pool is inherently networked, it is multimedia in nature and it can be interactive though the learner's computer programming characteristics. This networked, multimedia, interactive learning environment is the same environment in which most DLIFLC graduate linguists will operate on the job as well. Thus, the Defense Department's linguist community will join its other operations communities (e.g., aircraft pilots, ship captains, and infantry, artillery, and armor commanders) in learning in the same environment in which they will operate.

Summary

Computers have valuable roles to play in teaching and evaluating linguists. We must seize the initiative to determine those roles. Implementation of computerized training will have multiple effects, all of which are good:

- Teachers will be free to exploit their unique roles in language teaching and evaluation.
- Students will have more state-of-the-art tools to learn languages.
- Precious time for teachers and students to interact profitably will increase considerably.
- Students will be learning in part in the way in which they will work in the future.

The DLIFLC in particular and the foreign language community in general must enter into a robust dialog to determine, develop, and implement the proper roles for computers in language teaching and learning. That is a charter we must accept. It is a challenge we must—and—can meet!

Author

RODERIC A. GALE, Associate Provost, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Career education and training officer in the U.S. Air Force. Specializations: curriculum development and program management.

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The Role of Dictionaries in Language Learning

Philip A. White
Test and Standards Division

Language students can often be recognized by the books they carry: A textbook and a dictionary can evoke the image of the intermediate language learner. Unlike the textbook, itself often an object of discussion, the dictionary has provoked much less comment. Perhaps the dearth of comment on dictionaries in foreign language instruction is due to some assumptions tacitly made about the role of such a dictionary in the course of instruction.

There seem to be at least four types of dictionaries that learners might encounter:

1. The monolingual dictionary used by the speakers/readers of the target language.
2. The bilingual dictionary commonly used in language courses.
3. A monolingual dictionary complied for the language learner. Hornby's (1981) *Oxford Advanced Learner's English Dictionary* is one such example.
4. Electronic dictionaries used in conjunction with a computer.

The third and fourth types will not be discussed here. Although some languages have monolingual dictionaries compiled for the language student, as Masliyah (1995) has reviewed for Hebrew, this type of dictionary is not always available for study of all languages. Aust (1993) describes the use of an electronic dictionary. This type of dictionary is bound to be increasingly common; however currently they are not widespread. The purpose of this article is twofold: To examine some assumptions about dictionaries, especially the bilingual dictionary, and to suggest some ways of integrating the monolingual dictionary into the instructional process.

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Assumptions About Dictionaries

In general, several assumptions seem to be made concerning the use of the language learner's dictionary. First, the language learner usually is presumed to require a bilingual dictionary for reading in the latter stages of the course. Secondly, the bilingual dictionary should be sufficient for a student throughout the course of instruction and beyond. Finally, monolingual reference works are assumed to be more the domain of the native speaker/reader and very advanced learners. Often these premises or their variations underlie student encounters with the dictionary. However, are these assumptions warranted?

The type of dictionary to use in the classroom is not a new concern. Almost a generation ago, the dictionary was also a point of discussion, as shown by Mielon (1979). At that time, as noted in the article, the role of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries was a running debate at least within the pages of *TESOL Quarterly*.

The Use of Bilingual Dictionaries

Although articles about the use of the dictionary are not plentiful, some advice seems to be available. Wilga Rivers notes that "when students need help in ascertaining meaning, they should be trained to consult a monolingual foreign-language dictionary." (p. 283) The reason for this training, she notes, is so that the student can find the meaning used by a native speaker rather than taking just a gloss for the word. Other researchers tend to confirm Rivers' assessment. Ducroquet (1994) finds in a study of two bilingual dictionaries that choice of words and their presentation appears arbitrary. Scott (1989) concludes that bilingual dictionaries can *desystematize* the learning processes for the foreign language students by focusing their attention on the dictionary and its usefulness in comparison.

The foregoing notwithstanding, the use of a gloss to indicate meaning of a vocabulary item in the student's native language is certainly not out of place. Even the use of bilingual dictionaries is not precluded: Rivers (1981, p. 466) suggests that bilingual dictionaries can be used along with monolingual ones. Lespescu and Day (1989) find that among Japanese speakers learning English, those who used a bilingual dictionary during reading practice performed significantly better on a vocabulary test than those who did not.

Thus, it would seem that the bilingual dictionary has a place in language learning, although somewhat limited. Although use of the bilingual dictionary can aid the language learning process, it is not always appropriate to the learning situation.

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The Bilingual Dictionary Assumption

Although not a universal assumption, the idea that a bilingual dictionary is sufficient for a basic course of language instruction seems widespread. While a high school student or a student in a nonintensive college-level language course might well "survive" with only a bilingual dictionary, this assumption may be unwarranted for an intensive course student. As Rivers (1981) points out, the bilingual dictionary can lead the student to "inexact and misleading equivalents."

Why does this happen? Consideration of the "typical" bilingual dictionary shows what may happen when a student consults that type of work. Usually, though not always, the bilingual dictionary is a series of glosses for equivalent words. While some vocabulary may warrant two or even three different meanings in the target language or in the student's own language, the usual practice seems to be that each word has one gloss.

Without further explanation and examples, the student gets the impression that the semantic mapping of the target language has a one-to-one correspondence with the native language. Except for international scientific vocabulary, that mapping is rarely true, and such an assumption could impede learning.

The Native Language Dictionary Assumption

Often instructors may conclude that the monolingual dictionary is suitable for the native reader only. The complexity of the dictionary and the lack of aids for the language learner lead to this conclusion. Yet the native reader cannot be expected to know all the words in a dictionary, nor does the native necessarily understand the layout, the organization, and the type of information provided in the monolingual dictionary.

Can a language student use a monolingual dictionary? If introduced at the appropriate point in the course, the monolingual dictionary should be of some use to the student. A review of the Interagency Language Roundtable *Language Skill Level Descriptions* (1985) for reading indicates that a reader at Level 1 should be able to use the monolingual dictionary. At Level 1 the reader should be able to handle "highly predictable descriptions of persons, places, or things." (p. 8) Certainly the usual format of an entry in a dictionary is highly predictable."

Clearly some instruction and practice would be necessary for the Level 1 reader to use the dictionary. Also, vocabulary for the Level 1 reader would be restricted to very simple and concrete words. As the student's reading proficiency moves higher, more information could be gathered from the dictionary. At Level 2, the reader should be able to handle "simple technical material written for the general reader." (1985, p. 9) The monolingual dictionary lies within this description.

To sum up so far, the bilingual dictionary has a place in the language course, but use of the monolingual dictionary should be emphasized. Language learners should be encouraged to avoid single-word glosses for vocabulary items. Finally, learners at Levels 1 and 2 can start to use a monolingual dictionary.

Integrating the Dictionary in the Course

The use of a monolingual dictionary is divided into three phases: selection, presentation, and follow-up. Selection is the review and determination of a suitable dictionary for the student. Presentation is the actual design of classroom activities a student could carry out so as to gain facility in the use of the dictionary. Follow-up is required to maintain and increase skills with the dictionary.

The classroom instructor needs to decide on balancing the use of a bilingual dictionary—likely at the initial part of the course—with the monolingual dictionary which most likely would be integrated into the intermediate and final stages of instruction. As instruction proceeds, students would often use a glossary or a bilingual dictionary for looking up the meaning of vocabulary that is new or has been forgotten. Assuming a course of some duration and with a training objective of significant fluency for an intensive course, the goal would be for the instructor to ensure that students are weaned from sole dependence on the bilingual dictionary. This can be accomplished by introducing the monolingual dictionary through the latter part of the course as reading authentic material is practiced in greater magnitude.

Selection

Dictionaries range in size—the number of items—from very small to very large. An instructor may compile a one- or two-page vocabulary list for a class and have this list serve as a glossary for students. On the opposite end of the scale, one might have a work such as the multivolume *Oxford English Dictionary*. For English, one can find paperback dictionaries that contain about 50,000 entries or the more common and perhaps useful hardbound works such as the Merriam Webster Collegiate series of dictionaries.

The publisher and the compiler of the dictionary have a lot to do with its quality. If items are selected and presented according to academic standards that reflect research about the language and its syntax, pronunciation, and usage; then the dictionary can be used with confidence. Such standards often can be determined by looking at the publisher, editor, and consultants listed in the dictionary. While paperback dictionaries may be convenient to carry around, their contents might not always contain the words and information a reader seeks.

The following checklist, by no means exhaustive, is intended purely as a guide for evaluating dictionaries:

1. Does the dictionary reflect the vocabulary in use by educated native speakers and writers? Do entries indicate regional variations, obsolete words, and social usage? If relevant, does the work show spoken and written distinctions? Is the vocabulary current?

2. Are the editors and the compilers known as authorities on the compilation of dictionaries? Are they associated with an appropriate higher educational institute such as a university or a research organization? If the compiler is not well known, does the publisher have a reputation for quality works?

3. How many entries are there in the dictionary? While 50,000 items may seem to be a large number, the 200,000 or more entries in a standard desk reference assure that vocabulary is adequately covered. Students may rapidly become dissatisfied with a dictionary that is missing some of the vocabulary they are seeking.

4. Is the dictionary organized according to the usual conventions expected by native speakers of the language? For example, English dictionaries available for American English usually contain highly predictable entries formatted to include grammatical information, pronunciation, hyphenation, and etymology. A Chinese or a Japanese dictionary should be organized according to the 214 radical system or, in the case of Japanese, it could be arranged according to the syllabary order. While other arrangements for these languages may have merit, one needs to consider that students would spend extra time learning additional means of classification for ideographs.

5. Is the dictionary generally regarded as a conventional reference tool for the general reader? Although some specialized dictionaries may have some general items within their pages, students would benefit from using a dictionary designed for the general reader.

6. Is the dictionary available to your students? Assuming that students are located within the United States, would the dictionary be available for purchase through some vendor?

7. Is the price reasonable? Due to constantly fluctuating exchange rates and pricing of the dictionary by the publisher, some works may be prohibitively expensive for classroom use. Should price be a factor, it may be necessary to choose a less costly work.

8. Is the printing legible? Will students complain about smudged words or indistinct characters? While this might be more of an issue for languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Korean which use writing systems with more complex graphs; nonetheless, no student should have to initially endure printing complications in addition to learning to use a new language tool.

Presentation

Traditionally associated with vocabulary and reading, the dictionary has come to be considered as an adjunct to such exercises. Knight (1994), Luppescu and Day (1993), and Weatherford (1991), for example, focus on the twin concerns of vocabulary and word meaning for reading.

As with the suggestions for selection of a dictionary, the following should be viewed as suggestions for integrating the dictionary into classroom use.

1. Foreign language students will need to first know how entries in the dictionary are organized. While languages that use a Cyrillic alphabet, such as English, tend to organize entries according to the order of the particular alphabet, other languages such as those of East Asia, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, must of necessity use a different means of entry organization to encompass their writing systems. Even languages that seemingly share the same alphabet may not always use the same system in "alphabetizing" the language. For example Spanish alphabetizes 'ch' after 'c,' and 'll' after 'l.'

As a part of a reading exercise, the order of entries in a monolingual dictionary can initially be provided to the student. Using vocabulary previously learned, students could be asked to locate these items in the monolingual dictionary. By the time reading or listening take up a larger part of instruction, students should be able to understand the alphabetic or syllabary order of the language. Assumption that students have a grasp of the dictionary order of entries after the first portion of a course may not be valid for Chinese as dictionaries in that language are traditionally organized according to a "stroke and radical" system that must be learned apart from the initial presentation of the language.

2. General format of a dictionary entry needs to be made clear to the students. The structure of the information contained in each entry, such as indications of the part of speech, pronunciation, hyphenation (if applicable) and the like needs to be presented to the students. For example, entries in *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary* usually contain the follow information:

- pronunciation, including variations immediately after the entry, which is formatted to indicate hyphenation;
- an abbreviation for the part of speech, noun, verb, and so forth;
- etymological information given in brackets;
- the meaning or meanings of the word.

It is likely that such languages as Arabic, Korean, or Chinese will not have the same detail in their organization of the monolingual dictionary. Students should be made aware of differences as well as the general format of an entry in the dictionary.

3. If the language is inflected, students will need to know how the form of the word as listed in the dictionary. Citation forms of vocabulary need to be covered in the course. Knowing these forms can aid the student in looking up vocabulary items. For example, to locate an Arabic word in a dictionary, students need to know its triliteral root. This information needs to be provided in the course of instruction in Arabic.

4. Students need to know where to locate other details such as abbreviations often used for "parts of speech," or other information provided in the entry. If additional information is listed in the contents of the dictionary, such as glossaries of foreign phrases or place names, students should be informed about it. For foreign words, especially place and personal names, Chinese appears to employ either the use of "transliteration characters" or association of the name with a character that may have meaning.

5. Students need to practice looking up words in the dictionary. This skill might increase more readily if the words are very simple initially. For example, if one looks up the words "pen" and "pencil" in the dictionary, similar definitions are given: "an implement for writing or drawing..." (Webster*'s Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary*, p. 869). In turn the word "implement" is defined as a tool. Since the vocabulary is so elemental, a student can focus more on the skill of looking up a word. With a language such as Korean, students will need to be able to determine the citation form of the word. For those Korean words that have undergone sound changes due to the use of postposition particles, the

citation form may not be evident. As the derivation of such citation forms is usually presented during the instruction in speaking or listening, students could reinforce their knowledge of the language while they practice the use of the dictionary.

6. Additional exercises can be designed to fit in with the usual vocabulary building a student will be likely to practice. Additional sources of suggested practice are contained in the introduction of *Longman's Dictionary of American English* (1983).

7. Various exercises should be conducted throughout the course to make certain that students can use the monolingual dictionary. Perhaps some of the vocabulary items could be selected for use in an exercise to determine word meanings using the monolingual dictionary. In the advanced stages of the course, reading brief articles from newspapers can involve the use of the dictionary as a resource for identifying unknown vocabulary item.

8. Use of the monolingual dictionary as an integrated part of the latter stages of the language class can provide students with the facility to use the monolingual dictionary and to move away from dependency on the bilingual glossary.

Follow-Up or Maintenance

Of all types of knowledge, that of another language seems to be the most perishable. Maintenance of skill is an essential prerequisite of effective language use. Encouraging students to use the monolingual dictionary not only in class, but also on their own should serve the interests of the language learners and have the potential to further their knowledge and ability in the language.

Former students' use of the monolingual dictionary may be dependent on several factors such as motivation, further use of the language, and exposure to situations where unfamiliar vocabulary occurs. If the use of the monolingual dictionary is well-established during the course of instruction, former students will be likely to continue using the monolingual dictionary. Learners are well-served if they have come to realize that use of the monolingual dictionary can supplant and ultimately replace the student's sole reliance on the bilingual dictionary.

Should retraining or advanced study become possible for the student, then along with other aspects of the course, the use of the monolingual dictionary should be encouraged. If such an opportunity is available, then students may bring real-world experience in use of the language to the advanced classroom. Such experience can motivate students to use the dictionary.

Conclusions

Appropriately presented, the monolingual dictionary can become a useful tool for the language learner. Bilingual dictionaries can coexist within the course if their use is made clear to the student and if they are appropriately used as a transition aid to the monolingual dictionary. The monolingual dictionary can be of assistance to the student throughout the latter stages of the course and beyond.

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Author

PHILLIP A. WHITE, Education Specialist, Tests and Standards Division, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: applied linguistics, computer adaptive instruction, and sociolinguistics.

FACULTY EXCHANGE

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Significance of Output in Language Acquisition

Yoshimi Allard
Asian One School

Some time ago I had an opportunity to attend a natural approach (NA) demonstration offered by a visiting professor who was an advocate of NA. He conducted a 60-minute Spanish lesson that was designed for the first day of instruction at his college.

He spoke the entire 60 minutes in Spanish. Participants who had some knowledge of Spanish seemed to enjoy the intense lesson. I, on the other hand, was frustrated and my anxiety was high. I did not understand what he was saying and I was insecure in guessing the meaning. That some of the participants seemed to understand made me feel left out of the activity.

I decided to stay in the room as an observer since the whole show seemed to take place between the professor and the ones who understood. At the end of the hour I was disappointed, mostly because I did not have a chance to speak and nobody told me how. This experience made me question NA views on speaking.

NA does not enforce speaking. It holds that students' language production emerges after a silent period of comprehension process. It also holds that demanding that students speak will raise the affective filter which prevents students from acquiring language.

I do not think that students' speaking emerges in the classroom as NA holds. People generally speak because they need to. In the real world, children learning a first language or adults who are living in a foreign country learn to speak because they have to request, clarify, or express themselves in everyday situations. Such needs do not exist in the classroom unless they are created.

Communicative language-teaching (CLT), which holds that language-learning is learning to communicate, encourages students to communicate from the very beginning. It tries to create communicative needs by implementing, for example, task-based activities in the classroom

(Richard & Rogers, 1986). Nation (1989) further suggests adding some features such as roles and challenges to make classroom speaking activities successful.

How do we create communicative needs in a classroom? Communication occurs when there is a need to exchange information in order to fill a gap in someone's knowledge. If the listener already has the information the speaker can give, there is no need to communicate and the speaking becomes meaningless. If necessary, such an information gap among the speakers may be artificially created in the classroom.

I have appended three sample speaking activities. All of them focus on the exchange or gathering of biographical data. The activities are designed to fulfill learning objectives.

When students meet for the first time in the classroom they may not know each other well. Self-introductions can be a good beginning speaking activity. In Activity 1 in the Appendix, each student has the opportunity to introduce himself several times, each time with a different student. Students should become familiar with common greeting phrases such as "Hi" and "How do you do?" The students have different backgrounds so they have different language needs in order to introduce themselves.

Such needs should be satisfied during the Preactivity. The information gap in this activity is each student's personal background, which of course is different from everyone else's.

The information gap in Activity 2 is artificially created by giving each student a role with sets of data. Communication needs are created in order to accomplish the given task. The task in Activity 2 is to get information from students who are role-playing.

Activity 3 requires students to talk to each other, not only to share information but also to discuss the information and come to a conclusion about arranging a social date for a friend.

In any activity, it is important to prepare students before the main activity. During each preactivity, students are exposed to the language they may be using in the main activity. Students must be clear on the objective of the main activity so that they are aware of their language needs. In Activity 1 the objective of the activity is to be able to introduce one's self.

Each activity should be followed by the postactivity, in which students can review or expand the language used during the main activity.

I believe that speaking plays an important role in language acquisition. The ability to speak fluently does not emerge automatically in time after the comprehension of input. As Swain (1985) puts it, one learns to speak by speaking. The more one speaks, the better one gets at it. Both listening and speaking skills should be integrated from the beginning of instruction and continuously encouraged. Canale (1983) emphasizes that all the communicative skills should be practiced from the very beginning of the foreign language (FL) program.

That means teachers have to give students a chance to speak. Of course students cannot speak fluently from the very beginning. They are organizing their knowledge of the language in their subconscious minds. Allowing them to go through this process is necessary for improving their fluency. Teachers must be tolerant of their slow speed and erroneous expressions. Students cannot focus on every part of a sentence as they speak. Therefore, correcting every error is neither efficient nor effective. For example, when a student is focusing on a specific pattern in order to express himself, he may make another error, such as an error in pronunciation or in choice of words. The teacher should focus his attention on how students use the language needed for the activity. Less relevant errors that students commit can be corrected on another occasion.

I do not think that requiring students to speak will raise their affective filter as NA holds. I think it is a teacher's demand for complete accuracy that creates anxiety among students. Small children are not afraid to speak for the sake of speaking in front of their mothers. Rivers (1983) says that spontaneous communication can be done if there is a warm relationship between the teacher and students and among the students themselves. Challenge students, but do not demand complete accuracy and fluency.

It is important to encourage students to try out their language. Errors students make are important clues for finding out what is going on in the process of language learning. In initial counseling, one of the important questions we ask students is whether they are embarrassed when they make mistakes. We want to encourage them to overcome mistakes. Mistakes indicate students are trying out the target knowledge. It is through the natural process of shaping the language that they learn it. By making mistakes, students become aware of what works and what does not. The teacher also learns what the students' particular problems are. From this knowledge the teacher can often deduce how problems can be solved. Errors on the part of students indicate a natural process of language acquisition.

Swain (1985) argues that students have to speak and to test to see if their language can be understood.The students will know whether their spoken language is understood through the responses they receive in a meaningful interaction. This I call "experience" with language. Experience is the process of speaking meaningful language and receiving meaningful responses. Through the accumulation of individual experiences, students begin to understand the language and store the understood information in their memories. At the same time they begin processing the language toward acquisition. Rivers (1983) stated that "we interpret what we experience and then store the interpretation. It is this interpretation that is available to us for retrieval." (p. 70)

Krashen (1985, 1988), a strong advocate of NA, explains the necessity of intake (language input that is understood by students) for language acquisition and hypothesizes that intake is available via meaningful communicative activities. Basic elements of such activities do include speaking and negotiation work by every participant of the activities. As Swain (1985) hypothesizes, the role of output is equally as important as the role of input or intake. She suggests, based on her empirical studies on French immersion classes, that particularly in negotiation work students push their output in order to convey their intended meaning precisely. This, she argues, is a necessary mechanism of language acquisition.

Typically, FL students come to their classes with curiosity and high motivation for learning a new language. They also have some anxiety about the unknown. Such anxiety is nonthreatening and healthy. This is a good time to help them start speaking the language. If FL students learn to speak a few words on their first day of class they feel a sense of accomplishment. They also feel as if they are a part of the community where native speakers live and speak the language. They are in a world they had never belonged to until now and they will probably try to learn more about it to be accepted there. This leads to what Gardner and Lambert (cited in Rivers, 1983) call integrative motivation. A person with integrative motivation is interested in the other language community to the point of being willing to adopt distinctive characteristics of the behavior (linguistic and nonlinguistic). Gardner and Lambert suggest that students with such motivation learn language most effectively.

We should have speaking activities from the very beginning of the language lesson if speaking skill is to be developed. This will also keep the students' motivation high. If the Spanish class activity I attended had emphasized speaking and had taught me how to speak Spanish, I would have been more actively involved and would have felt more positive about learning the language. The professor would also have realized quickly whether I was involved in the activity or not. A speaking activity on the first day of class would build up a closer relationship between the teacher and the students. This output on the part of students also helps teachers estimate students' abilities. It is always a joy for me, as a teacher, to hear students try to speak the language I teach. I do not get quite the same feeling when students are only involved in listening.

Appendix

Activity 1

Exchanging Greetings and Introducing Yourself

Objective: Introduce yourself.

Preactivity: Students will practice introducing themselves. The teacher will help each student with the words and simple expressions that are necessary. Some students may want to say they are married and have children. Some may want to say they like running. Some may want to say more. Some may want to say less. Not only the information gap, but also the language gap is good for learning the language through communication because students will also learn the language from their peers.

Activity: Form inner and outer circles with the same number of students in each circle. Students in the outer and inner circles face each other. Each student introduces himself to the student with whom he is thus paired. Each pair of students will have about two minutes (one minute for each student) to do this. Then the students in the outer circle turn the circle, each of them facing another student of the inner circle. Each new pair will perform self-introductions again. The teacher may join the circle or may assist the students. Four-handed teaching will work well in this activity, as two teachers may show the sample introduction before the students start the activity. One teacher may join the circle and the other may assist the students.

Sample Introduction: "Hi, how do you do? I'm Captain John Smith. I am in the U.S. Army. I'm from California. I'm married and have two daughters . . ."

Postactivity: Review the expressions the students used.

Benefit: The repetition of introductions in the activity will help students reinforce their language use. They will also learn expressions besides the ones they themselves used since each student expresses his personal background (ranks, hobbies, family members, etc.) which is different from others'.

Activity 2

Biographical Data Gathering: Asking a Person's Name and Asking Him to Tell About Himself

Objective: Ask questions such as "Who are you?," "Where are you from?," "What do you do?," "How old is ....?"

Materials:

- Role cards with biographical data. (Students will play the roles of the persons described on the cards).

Example of a role card:

Name: David Clark
Nationality: U.S.
Date of birth: August 8, 1965
Place of birth: Osaka, Japan
Job: Pilot, US Navy
Family: wife (Mary), son (Jack, age two), daughter
(Jenny, age four)

- Task cards with instructions to obtain certain pieces of information by asking questions. (Students will perform the tasks described on the cards.)

Example of a task card:

> "Obtain the name and current address of the person who is the Honda Motors representative. He is not married."

Preactivity: Practice asking questions using "what," "when," etc.

Activity: Each student is given a role card and a task card. Each is given five minutes to become familiar with the role card. Each also studies his task card and practices asking questions. Students then interview other students one at a time to find a specified person (for example, the Honda Motors sales representative who is not married). When the person is found, the student who searched for him will obtain his name and address.

Postactivity: Each student introduces to the class the person he was instructed to find and reports on this person.

Suggestion: The cards may be exchanged so students can practice different roles and tasks.

Activity 3

Dating Agency: Describing a Friend and Arranging a Social Date for Him

Objective: Solve a problem through discussion.

Materials: Profiles of persons written on single sheets of paper. Each student will receive a profile of a different person. The person is described as an acquaintance. Half of the activity group receives profiles of men, the other half receives profiles of women.

> Example of a profile (this can be written in the target language):
>
> My friend's name is Jack. He was born in El Paso, Texas, on August 15, 1970. His father was in the Army. In college he studied history. At present he is in the Army. He was assigned to Germany for six months. He wants to continue studying history, especially Asian history, after he completes his language studies at DLI. But first he will go to Japan for three years. He likes outdoor activities such as biking and camping. He likes Mexican food, but cannot cook well.

Preactivity: Each student is given five minutes to familiarize himself with the profile of a person.

Activity: Divide the class into groups of four or six students. Make certain that half of each group has profiles of female acquaintances and that the other half has profiles of male acquaintances. The students' task is to find a date for their acquaintances. They will have 25 minutes for discussion. After the discussion each group will report to the class on who was matched with whom and on reasons why the matches were made.

Postactivity: Review the language used during the discussion activity.

Suggestion: The teacher can assist the activity by supplying language, if needed by the students.

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Author

YOSHIMI ALLARD, Assistant Professor, Team Coordinator. Japanese Language, Asian One School, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93940-5006. Special interests: second language acquisition, computer-assisted language learning.

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The Applicability of Digital Video to Computerized Language Learning

Kiril Boyadjieff and Gerald Poulin
Technology Integration Division

This study investigated the capabilities of the Intel's latest video capture board, the Intel Smart Video Recorder Pro. It also provided information about the capabilities of various CD-ROM drives in handling AVI files. The final outcome of this study was an objective assessment of the applicability of today's digital video for the purpose of computer-assisted language learning.

One of the most attractive prospects of the modern computer-learning environment is the potential for integration of a broad range of authentic materials into various courseware programs. Appropriate combinations of text, sound, color, pictures, and animation contribute significantly to a more effective and motivating exposure of the learner to communications. One important element however, has been traditionally underrepresented in our courseware development: full-motion video.

The preceding statement should not be construed to mean that the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has underestimated the importance of video as a learning tool. In the past, we have invested significant resources in developing video-related computerized materials. Our most important current effort in the field of full-motion video is the work of Jorge Salazar on the Spanish Video Courseware.

However, despite our many successes in this area, one significant problem remains unresolved: All of our past and current projects are hardware dependent. Each of the user's individual workstations has to be supported by an expensive laser disc player with cumbersome connections and custom setups. This hardware-bound approach prevents the DLIFLC from providing computerized video materials to outside users.

The growth in microprocessor technology in the last several years offers an effective remedy to the problems outlined above. The price of a mid-range video capture board can be as low as $500. In addition, the data transfer rates and data storage capacity of today's multimedia PCs have improved to the point at which the concept of digital video becomes not only technically achievable but also one of the least expensive ways to integrate this important medium into our courseware development.

The purpose of this study is to provide a better understanding of the specifics of digital video: capture, editing, sound integration, ToolBook 3.0 handling of AVI files, data transfer rates, and related topics. In addition, the authors have captured over 100 MB of digital video and placed the respective AVI files on a single CD for the specific purpose of testing the transfer rate of various CD-ROM drives. The following outlines our findings to date:

1. Digital video provides an acceptable level of quality and excellent portability for full-motion video. The most useful combination might be an image size of 240 x 180, 15 frames per second (f/s), and mono, 8 bit, 11 kHz sound. When the Intel R3.2 video compressor is used (this compressor is an integral part of the Intel Smart Video Recorder Pro card) one minute of such files occupies from 15 to 20 MB of memory.

These numbers are very promising. For example, the current Czech Proficiency Improvement Course (PIC) requires only 130 MB, including all sound files. A single CD offers over 650 MB of memory space. Thus a course such as the Czech PIC can be supplemented with at least 20 minutes of acceptable quality video-supported exercises, resulting in a more comprehensive learning program.

Very appealing is the fact that the end-user of digital video does not require any additional hardware. The user need not worry about expensive laser disc players, VCRs, complicated cable links, ultra-sensitive drivers, or other peripherals. A standard multimedia workstation (minimum 486/33) loaded with DOS 5.0, Windows 3.1, runtime ToolBook 3.0, MS Video for Windows runtime, and the respective AVI files is all it takes to display full motion video.

Digital video also provides the opportunity to circumvent our current copyright problems. It takes just a standard camcorder and a little imagination to produce whatever video is needed for any courseware development project. With our current experience, we can train any computer-literate employee to handle the digitizing of analog video in matter of five to eight hours. This approach offers short turn-around time, a high level of flexibility, and minimal waiver complications. Additionally, once the copyright issues are resolved with SCOLA and laser disc publishers, in-house digital video capture allows us to create, use, and store the ultimate in authentic video materials.

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2. The respective workstations require the following minimum capabilities:

Developer station

- Video card with display resolution covering the entire range of today's standards, such as 640 x 480, 800 x 600, 1024 x 768, and 1280 x 1024. Also, the video card must offer the entire range of color display options 16, 256, 65K, and 16 millions. Pricefrom $150 to $250.
- Video dedicated RAM (DRAM or VRAM)2 MB minimum (comes with the video card)
- Video-capture board such as the Intel Smart Video Recorder Pro$499.
- Data transfer rate of the CPU should be no less than 512 KB/Sec. The ata transfer rate of our current SCSI 486/33 is slightly over 1024 KB/sec.
- SVGA monitor, 640 x 480, 256 colors.
- PCI local bus
- Quad speed (4x) CD-ROM drive

User station

- Video card with display resolution of 640 x 480 and 256 colors. The ASL Lightning II, currently available at TI, is adequate. The original VGA cards installed in our current 486/33s cannot be used for the purpose of an AVI display.
- Video dedicated RAM (DRAM or VRAM)1 MB minimum. The ASL Lightning II offers the minimum in this respect.
- Preferably, a PCI local bus; ISA or EISA will perform acceptably when supplemented by an appropriate video bus.
- Any of our current 486/33s should be capable of handling the CPU-related tasks here at a minimum acceptable level.
- At least a double speed (2x) CD-ROM drive.

3. During our tests, all AVI files that we ran directly from the hard drive displayed acceptable playback quality. Also, ToolBook 3.0 handles AVI files very well under both MM and MCI control command structures. Double-speed CD-ROM drives have the potential of providing

minimally suitable viewing quality, given a properly configured system. Most probably the next generation of workstations (such as the Pentium/75 with 4x CD-ROM drives) will be the best option; they are capable of providing superior results as far as the CD-ROM transfer rate is concerned. Single-speed CD-ROM drives, on the other hand, are totally unsuitable for running acceptable quality digital video. Users of such equipment must upgrade to at least double-speed drives.

Our current work on digital video has provided us with volumes of information about all major aspects of this promising area of modern technology. We believe that the knowledge and skills collected during the past several weeks will benefit many future courseware development projects. Most of all, the current work will diminish significantly the probability of committing costly errors in the procurement of hardware and software as well as in the design, resource allocation, and quality control of courseware development.

In conclusion, we would like to express our support for further integration of digital video into our courseware development efforts. Digital video is an attractive alternative to other existing approaches in the field of full-motion video. For more information regarding the subject of this report, call the Technology Integration Division at (408) 242-5323.

Authors

KIRIL BOYADJIEFF, Technology Specialist, Technology Integration Division, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: computer-assisted studies in multimedia technolocy and foreign language education.

GERALD POULIN, Technology Specialist, Technology Integration Divison, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: computer-assisted language learning.

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The DLPT as a Learning Objective

Ilsoon Shin
Asian Two School

The learning process is complex. As an instructor, I have been studying and observing it for about 30 years. In designing a program of instruction, one must define the program's objectives. Then one must have a way to gauge students' progress in attaining them. However, the gauge should not become the objective. Certain steps can be taken to prevent this from happening.

An example of a learning objective may read like this: "By the end of this course, the student, using an English-Korean dictionary, will translate from English into Korean a half-page article from *Time* magazine in one hour with no more than five mistakes."

Every course has different learning objectives. A course's objectives depend upon the subject matter, the proficiency level of the student, and other factors.

A multiple-choice test is one way to check student progress. In some fields, these tests can be constructed so that they are very valid and reliable. The scores of students can be ranked and compared. Multiple-choice tests, when well-constructed and appropriately utilized, are useful.

However, when students study mainly for multiple-choice tests, the objective for the course can become, in the view of some students, "passing the multiple-choice test."

This should not be a course objective.

Why?

To answer this question, another question must first be answered: What have students learned when they have learned to pass a multiple-choice test?

The answer is simple. They have learned to pass a multiple-choice test. That does not mean that they understand the topic, nor that they will use their new knowledge in new situations. They most likely do not know how to analyze to the appropriate standards. When rain is forecast, people take umbrellas to work. They do not have to think about it. Studying only to pass tests usurps the point of the objectives and thus distorts the learning process. Learning becomes only a race to pass a test. Meaningful exploration and the joy of discovery give way to the grind of memorization. Confucius would be proud of the students who succeed in such a situation, but testing that is so predictable that it dominates learning is poor testing.

What then is the remedy? I offer the following observations:

1. When students know the type of test that is to come, they study for that type of test. Measuring of broad and varied subject matter requires broad and varied tests. Some educators have developed a number of types of tests and randomly select a particular type for a given time. Therefore students cannot anticipate the type of test that will be given. They then direct their efforts more profitably toward studying the subject matter rather than the previous tests.

2. Most questions that arise in life are not framed with multiple-choice answers. For example, when something goes wrong on a job, a supervisor will probably ask: "What can be done about this?" Employees are not given choices, just situations to analyze and resolve. Some educators have placed more emphasis on the thinking process rather than on memorization. Their students are required to reason things out for themselves. They are forced to learn the process to know the answers to test questions.

3. Some educators assign extensive written projects. They are so specific that students cannot copy from others. Students must then think and organize their thoughts. Therefore, they learn. The quality learning process is not like following a cookbook. In order to be highly effective, instruction must be carefully designed for each level and situation.

Educators must be able to certify that graduates are really prepared in their fields of study. Testing should be designed to validate the ability of students to meet learning objectives. If tests do not do that, they often become screening devices that help eliminate those who have not memorized previous tests or testing patterns. The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center needs graduates who can apply what they have learned. Some students learn well, no matter what testing system is in place. It is likely that many students do in fact study only to pass tests. But that is not enough. That must change.

Author

ILSOON, SHIN, Acting Team Leader, Asian Two School, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: foreign language education, testing.

NEWS AND VIEWS

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How Arab Émigré Writers in America Kept Their Cultural Roots

Foazi El-Barouki
Middle East One School

This article attempts to present a study of some words of wisdom and sayings of Arab intellectual émigrés in America, focusing on the contemplative characteristics featured in the personalities of Lebanese writer Mikhail N'aima and some members of the "Pen Society," which was formed in New York, Boston, and Cincinnati earlier this century. The Pen Society included Gibran Khalil Gibran, Mikhail N'aima, Abdul Messih Haddad, Nassib Aredha, Elia Abu Madhi, and William Katsfield. These writers showed common characteristics of bewilderment and skepticism marked by tender sufism and strong nostalgia for the motherland. They all had strong attachment to Arabic language, literature, and culture. The members of this group expressed a romantic philosophy in their outlook to life and professed their attitude toward moral and social values in numerous writings, books, and essays.

Their nostalgia for their homelands was illustrated expressly by Nassib Aredha, who once said: "I, the immigrant, have two souls: One follows in my footsteps, but the other is hostage to my homeland." To Abdul Messih Haddad, New York was "a city of gloom." Gibran said: "Here (in New York), life is as cold as ice, as bleak as ash, and as mute as the Sphinx."

Haddad wrote about the "misery and Western social values created by the feverish race for financial gain." His experience had a great emotional impact on him and he wrote about home (Syria) with so much passion and tenderness, mingled with bitterness, longing, nostalgia, separation, and isolation, as an "orphan rebelling against intellectual stagnation." "Riding a donkey up to the stream, walking to the vineyard in the midst of dust, on muddy roads, and sleeping in the meadow at noontime are sweeter to the heart of the old son of Syria than standing on Broadway, where cars and carriages are crammed together," Haddad wrote. "It is more beautiful to sleep in a cabin built from orchard trees

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than on a bed which does not see the sun for a single minute in the year. Sitting by the window in the old Syrian house, where your eyes can see for miles and miles, is more beautiful than the 58-story Woolworth building." He continued: "The robe which one wears, in which one feels comfortable sitting the way one likes, to squat or to lie down, lean (against a wall) or just lie flat, with nothing on one's legs or knees, is much more beautiful and a lot nicer than the shackles of pants."

The nostalgia for the East was reflected by a psychological inclination which members of the Pen Society shared and depicted through their passion for freedom. It was also reflected by their support for the unity of Greater Syria (Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, and Palestine) and their appreciation of the Arabic language and their loyalty to the notion of Arab identity. Despite the fact that all these writers were Christians, they respected Islamic culture and wrote about it. Gibran, who described himself as a Christian, a Lebanese, a Syrian, and a man from the East, had an affection for the Arab prophet Mohammed of whom he spoke highly. He expressed admiration for the glory of Islam and voiced his fear for its decline.

Gibran drew upon the Arab-Islamic heritage in some of his artistic portrayals. For instance, he named a character after the Prophet's mother Amina in order to reflect what he thought in the dramatic scene *Iram, dhat el-Imad* (*The City of Pillars,* mentioned in the Qur'an as an ancient capital) in his book *Al-Bada'ie wal Tara'if* (*Marvels and Anecdotes*). He wrote many essays about Avicenna, Al-Ghazzali, and Ibn Al-Faridh. He was influenced by the sayings of the renowned cousin and son-in-law of the Prophet, Ali Ibn Abi Talib, and his wisdom in *Nahj-ul-Balagha* (*Manner of Eloquence*).

Like Gibran, Mikhail N'aima was influenced by the words of some Muslim Sufis. In his saying, "One, sole prayer could mar (many) prayers," N'aima was clearly inspired by the old Sufi poetess Rabi'a al-Adawiya, who said: "Our plea (to God) for forgiveness is in need of forgiveness."

The psychological orientation of the Pen Society members was unambiguously portrayed by Gibran and Mikhail N'aima in their reflections on love, truth, knowledge, imagination, art, and human civilization. On the image of melancholy, Gibran wrote: "The melancholy of love chants, the melancholy of knowledge talks, the melancholy of desire whispers, and the melancholy of poverty wails. However, there is another (sense) of melancholy that is more profound than love, more noble than knowledge, more powerful than desire, and more bitter than poverty. Yet, it is mute and has no voice. But, it has eyes that glitter like the stars."

On civilization, he said: "When a savage gets hungry, he picks fruit from a tree and eats it. When a civilized person feels hungry, he buys the fruit from a person who bought it from (another) person who bought it from the person who picked it from the tree." He expressed his attitude towards art, esthetics, love, and truth in a philosophical tone. "Love is happiness that quivers," he said. He also said, "Enthusiasm is a volcano where the bushes of hesitation do not grow."

N'aima was influenced by Gibran's style that evoked philosophical wisdom, especially the kind of wisdom inspired by fables, which appeared in Gibran's book *Sand and Foam* (1926). N'aima wrote a similar book which he named *Grapevine on a Passageway*. In this book he compiled 454 sayings and proverbs which reflected his own views on life. His thoughts were close to Gibran's in certain aspects. For instance, where Gibran said, "Without guests, home would be a graveyard," N'aima said, "A house that knows no guests is a graveyard for its owners."

Gibran said: "Trees are but poems written by earth on the skies." N'aima wrote: "The poetry of earth is (in) its trees."

When N'aima spoke about truth, he pointed out that original truth lies in the soul. "He who has no guidance from his soul is lost," he said. He viewed love as the law of existence. He wrote: "The elements of the universe are four: 'L. O. V. E.' and they are combined by the individual's component of 'I.'"

His philosophy eliminated distances. "Your neighbor is the one that is close to you in heart," he once wrote. "Whenever I put my hand in a hand I had not touched before, I would say, 'Praise be to God,' for a new start that might cleanse his heart, at least one time."

His philosophy promoted forgiveness, for "there is no defense of love other than forgiveness." He stressed: "Love that does not forgive masquerades under a false name."

According to N'aima, love is protected by peace. "There will be no peace on earth until peace overcomes the last armed soldier." He believed that life is an everlasting cycle that is also indivisible. "Give me a drop of water and I will give you a sea."

About happiness, N'aima said: "The roots of pleasure lie in agony and the roots of agony are in pleasure, but happiness has no roots." However, man's endeavor to obtain happiness can be fruitful only in knowledge, because knowledge alone is the key to existence, he argued. "I knew; I wanted, and so I conquered fate," but, "I was ignorant; I rebelled, and I was crushed."

N'aima believed that man learns when he errs and that erring leads to pain. As for knowledge, it is the faith that rests in the heart. The mind is imperfect, according to N'aima. In fact, it is "your most ignorant (part)," he proclaimed. The senses, too, can belie the truth. "How many sounds have passed through my ears, sounds I did not hear? How many voices have I heard, but never with my ears?"

N'aima also wrote: "It is through faith that we reach eternity." To him, faith represented life. "For atheists, cradles are graves, but the graves of believers are cradles." He did not concern himself with an analysis of faith. He once wrote: "I have broken my pen twice: once when I tried to analyze my belief in God, and the other time when I tried to analyze my faith in myself. But, today I have put the pieces of my pen back in place, and now it is more powerful than ever, concerned not with analysis but rather with writing."

Imagination, in N'aima's view, is an infinite power that helps humans to attain knowledge. He said: "Between my eyebrows, I have a third eye without which I would be blind." In order to get to this knowledge and to achieve freedom, man has to overcome certain obstacles, according to N'aima. These obstacles include:

1. A sharp tongue. "Better to be bitten by teeth than by a tongue."
2. A desire to harm. (Addressing smokers), N'aima said, "If you have to smoke, then use incense smoke."
3. Anger. "Anger is the spume of the fire of ignorance," he said. "I was angry for the sake of righteousness, but righteousness became angry with me."
4. Love of money. "He who hoards money is an empty safe."

N'aima saw the image of God in the universe. He said: "Space is a giant egg and time is its crux." He added: "(It is) an egg within an egg, within an egg, all the way down to infinity. But, the pollen of everything is God, and that is the Universe." He believed that man is the image of God. "I wonder how a believer in God can curse His image and His example."

He believed that man owed his greatness to this image of God. "I have known ignorant people who claim to be knowledgeable, fools who claim to be wise, lowly people who claim to be superior, and poor people who claim to be wealthy. Yet, I have not seen a human being who claims to be a human."

The Bible had an obvious influence on N'aima. "It is an act of courage for a person who has a right to remain silent," N'aima said. According to N'aima, Jesus Christ has preached self-denial and

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conquest of desire. In N'aima's words: "Freedom is a unique tree which grows upon a unique tree called understanding." This is very similar to the Biblical "Know the truth, and the truth will set you free."

N'aima was also influenced by traditional proverbs and old words of wisdom. For instance, he said: "A lesson would not be lost if it were a lesson to the person who took it." This is similar to an old Arab saying: "Malik (a man's name) has not forsaken the advice he gave you."

N'aima used other well-known sayings from his folk heritage to make a point, such as: "A moment of pain is an hour, and an hour of pleasure is a moment," and, "Sleep does not ride eyelids that are afflicted by worry."

Mikhail N'aima drew upon Arabic literature and was especially influenced by the old poet Abul Ala'a al-Ma'arri. N'aima wrote: "I saw a funeral procession pass by my window, and I said 'May God bless his or her soul.' Then a wedding procession passed by and I said, 'May God bless him and her." This was inspired by Al-Ma'arri's poem in which he said:

> I have no gain in my creed and faith;
> The lament of a wailer, or the chant of a singer.
> For the voice of mourning is similar, if compared,
> To that of the messenger of good tidings in every
>   corner.

Then, N'aima said: "The dead are but the soil of the living," which was clearly inspired by Al-Ma'ari's line in the same poem:

> Tread gently with your steps, for I believe
> The face of earth is none but these bodies (of the dead).

The members of the Pen Society, particularly N'aima and Gibran, were proponents of romanticism in calling for self-expression of spiritual experience, affection for nature, and love for the motherland. They all seemed to share a sense of melancholy and rebellion and they believed in the oneness of life and unity of mankind. A certain similarity could be discerned between the intellectual make-up of the ideology of those émigrés and their attitudes after they left their homes, for one reason or another. It seemed inevitable that they would experience a severe cultural shock and alienation in the face of the complex traditions of big cities. No doubt some of them did experience this kind of feeling, and so they kept their own traditions and devotion to the Arabic language and culture. Some of them refused to abandon the fez, or the waterpipe, or the large mustache. They stuck to their original customs and culture and practiced their own traditions on all occasions, whether celebrating or mourning.

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Author

FAOZI EL-BAROUKI, Chairperson, Middle East One School. Defense Language Center Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: crosscultural communication and language acquisition.

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Chinese Teachers' Workshop

Meei-Jin Hurtt
Asian One School

The two chairpersons and four team coordinators of the Chinese Department participated in the interagency *Chinese Teachers' Workshop,* August 7-11, 1995, sponsored by the Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL). There were twenty-five participants from five different agencies. This was the first time that the two department chairs and four team coordinators worked together outside of their regular work environment, giving them a chance to get to know each other better in a relaxed learning atmosphere. Aside from the benefit of the academic training and the opportunities for sharing ideas, they developed friendships with colleagues from other schools, such as the National Cryptologic School, the Foreign Service Institute, the Office of Training and Education, and the 17th Training wing, Goodfellow Air Force Base.

The facilitators of the workshop were Edward Stoops, former government linguist, and Kuan-Yi Rose Chang, West Virginia University. Scott McGinnis, University of Maryland, and Xiaobin Jian, College of William and Mary. They also made presentations and otherwise participated in parts of the workshop.

"Nuts and bolts of putting a lesson together: Five stages" was the title of Edward Stoops's presentation. The nuts and bolts represent the important elements of a sound lesson. Before a lesson is put together, the teacher should take these elements into consideration. Some of the nuts and bolts are: authentic texts, timely and timeless texts, subject matter, context, top-down procession, June Phillips's Five Stages, calibrating text and task with students, and exercises. After reviewing Five Stages, we formed groups of five or six.

Using authentic materials and the overview of Five Stages and exercises, the groups designed and presented a reading lesson that would be usable in our own classes. The first stage is preparation, which includes topic introduction and key vocabularies to predict the text. The second stage is skimming, scanning, and reading for textual cohesion. Selecting titles and topics of sentences, providing specific information and reorganizing scrambled paragraphs or sentences are some of the recommended activities. The third stage is intensive reading/decoding. Activities for this stage include organization of information, dictionary exercises, and filling in the blanks. The forth stage is comprehension check. Some activities proposed for this stage are gisting, filling in a chart, comprehension questions, transcribing, and translation. The final stage is skills integration. Teachers evaluate students' success and problems. Some activities suggested here are reports, vocabulary buildup, dictionary practice, and grammar reinforcement.

The participants found the guidelines of Five Stages and the suggested exercises for each stage to be useful and convenient tools for instructors to use in designing reading and listening lessons. Stoops also left us some interesting research topics to ponder for example,

How do American Students Learn Chinese Reading Texts?
Classic Characters versus Simplified Characters: Is It Necessary to Teach Students Classic Characters?
When Is the Best Time to Send Students Overseas to Learn Chinese?
Learning Strategies for Chinese Characters

At the workshop Xiaobin Jian presented his newly completed project, *Kaleidoscope Spoken Cantonese: Context and Performance.* The project contains three volumes of teaching materials and three hours of authentic video materials (six episodes of a Cantonese soap opera). Why authentic video materials? Jian listed three reasons. First, they provide real language (completed versus broken, articulate versus vague, verbal versus nonverbal, etc.) in action in real time (in a social and cultural context). Second, they show that verbal expressions work with other communicative devices. Third, they show not just the speaker's intention and attitude, but also the relationship between the speaker and the listener. Jian said that understanding what is going on, describing what is going on, using what was just learned in similar situations, and using what was just learned in different situations were his main objectives in developing authentic video materials for teaching. He divided the procedures of using authentic video materials into three stages: (1) familiarization, including previewing activities, introduction to the material, and intensive listening activities; (2) performance, including introduction to performance, performance exercises, and expansion exercises; (3) rehearsal and review of role playing and improvisations.

Scott McGinnis focused on communicative approaches in teaching Chinese grammar and student-centered activities. He maintained that grammar is the basic element of any language. Aside from pronunciation, vocabulary, and written characters, learners must have a good understanding of Chinese grammar before they can master word usage and sentence construction. McGinnis emphasized that we should not teach grammar simply for the sake of teaching grammatical terms. Communication is the final objective of learning grammar. Using pictures from magazines and our own drawings, he directed us in designing grammar lessons. According to McGinnis, each lesson should consist of three parts: The first part identifies the grammar point, its functions (communicative and linguistic), context area, and content area. The second part presents examples and asks students to reach their own conclusions based on the information provided in the first part. The third part contains drills and activities to reinforce the learning experience.

"Integrating Technology into the Curriculum" was the agenda for the last day's workshop. Kuan-Yi Rose Chang, Pat Yang of LTD, and the Resource Center Staff of CALL demonstrated Chinese software and discussed its pedagogical value with us. All participants had ample opportunities for hands-on exploration of the software. The participants found *OLEADA* (Spanish for WAVE) to be the most impressive software program. *OLEADA* is an interagency project integrating language technology into three phases of training: development, presentation, and independent study. Developers identify relevant authentic texts, provide examples of words and expressions in context, discover the frequency of words in texts, and analyze the grammar of sentences. In presentation, teachers use OLEADA to identify relevant authentic texts, provide examples of words and expressions in context, segment target language text, identify the part of speech for each word in a text, and retrieve parallel English renditions of words and expressions across sets of texts. During independent study, learners use OLEADA to identify relevant authentic texts, look up unfamiliar words, analyze words in context for the part of speech, segment target language text, retrieve a parallel English rendition of the text, and identify key facts, such as people, organizations, and places. The functions of this project were gathering on-line multilingual text collections from sources such as newspapers, journals, and transcribed speech, then retrieving texts of interest for analyzing language in the texts. Sources included Agency France Press (for English, Peninsular Spanish, French, Arabic, German, and Peninsular Portuguese), Xinhua Press (for Mandarin, English, Spanish, French, German, and Arabic) and Yonhap (for Korean and English). This project helps instructors develop language learning materials, and it is most valuable for less commonly-taught languages. It will help learners to improve proficiency through self-study. It will aid analysts in maintaining and improving language performance.

The workshop was intensive and well organized; it provided a forum for exchanging ideas, sharing materials and resources, and strengthening ties with language professionals of other government agencies. DLI participants were pleased with all the presentations and discussions, and have shared the workshop information with their colleagues. Anyone interested in viewing the material may contact the Chinese Departments.

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Author

MEEI-JIN HURTT, Chairperson, Chinese Department B, Asian One School, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Tel. 408-242-7837. Specializations: foreign language teaching methodology and second language acquisition.

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Peer Observation
Concepts and Practices

Alaa Elghannam
Middle East One School

A workshop on peer observation sponsored by the Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL) was held in Washington, DC, from July 22nd to 26th 1996, with participants from three federal language-training schools in attendance.

The participants included eleven instructors and supervisors from the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), seven from the National Cryptological School (NCS), and eight from the Foreign Service Institute (FSI).

The languages represented were Arabic, French, Russian, Spanish, Polish, German, Portuguese, Japanese, Chinese, and Albanian.

The workshop was moderated by Kathleen Bailey, of the Monterey Institute of International Studies, and Donald Freeman, of the School of International Training in Vermont.

Workshop Objectives

The main goal of the workshop was to "explore and develop concepts and practices in the use of effective peer observation for professional development." To pursue this goal, the leaders used a variety of techniques and procedures including brief lectures, groupwork, short reading assignments, and varied experiential activities.

Such activities not only made the seminar lively and interesting, but also created a positive atmosphere in which participants shared ideas, experiences, and opinions, all of which contributed significantly to the success of the workshop and to the professional development of the participants.

The seminar leaders established some micro-goals to guide presentations and activities throughout the workshop. The first of these was to "develop a personal and professional understanding of peer observation." Other objectives were to examine affective and power issues which influence peer observation, to learn objective procedures for collecting data in the classroom, to develop conceptually sound vocabulary for discussing peer observation practices, and to identify and clarify the issues involved in successful peer observation in a particular setting. To facilitate reviewing the concepts presented in this workshop, I will use these objectives to guide the discussion in this report.

Peer Observation: Toward a Definition

In order to develop an understanding of peer observation and eventually define the concept, an experiential learning model was first presented. This model suggests that learning occurs through a cycle of four sequential steps. This cycle begins with a certain experience and goes through reflection, generalization, and finally application.

In other words, learning and/or development occurs when an individual engages in a new experience or activity and thoughtfully reflects upon this experience by weighing it against his/her prior knowledge and expectations in order to arrive at a logical conclusion, make sound decisions, or generate new concepts or ideas regarding this particular learning experience, and to eventually apply the learned conclusion, idea, or concept successfully in a new situation.

Naturally, for such a cycle to be successful, an individual would sometimes need reinforcing feedback in order to be able to evaluate his/her new experience and to continue this learning and developmental process.

By proposing such a model in the beginning of the workshop, the stage was set to define peer observation as a developmental process rather than an evaluative one. It was also recognized that an element of evaluation might necessarily exist in this process and that an effort should be made to avoid being judgmental in the process of observation.

It is worth mentioning also that peer observation is occasionally used as a validation criterion in teacher evaluation research. The issue of evaluation was not particularly dealt with in this workshop, however.

In order to arrive at an acceptable definition for peer observation, it was necessary to introduce other concepts that are involved in this process. For example, it was important to define who a peer is, what the focus of observation would be and why, and whether there would be a follow-up or feedback and, if so, what form it would take. Within this framework, it was necessary to introduce another model that explains the components of teaching in order to identify what needs to be observed.

In this respect, one of the presenters introduced a model that describes teaching in terms of four essential components, which he referred to as the KASA model. According to the presenter, any teaching comprises knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness.

The "knowledge" indicates the "what" of teaching; that is, the nature of the content, the teacher's familiarity with it, and knowledge of the student's sociocultural background and of the institutional context.

The "attitude" refers to the affective stance towards self, activity, and others, which links the internal dynamics of teaching and external performance of the teacher. The "skills" define the "how" of teaching in terms of methods, techniques, activities, and the tools and materials used. "Awareness," according to the presenter, triggers attention to the other three components.

Some participants, including this writer, have raised questions about the inclusion of "awareness" in particular as a component of teaching. Nevertheless, the model itself has been useful in identifying an important element in the observation process—that is what the observer needs to look for in the classroom. How to conduct this process in the classroom was another essential element that was discussed in detail in this workshop.

With regard to classroom observation, an important distinction has been made between three concepts: observation, inference, and opinion. Observation, it was pointed out, is the act of noting and recording facts. Inferences, on the other hand, are decisions or conclusions that are based on facts or evidence collected. Opinions are beliefs, evaluations, or impressions that are not necessarily based upon positive knowledge, but on what seems to be true, probable, or valid to one's own mind. The distinction among these three concepts has been very helpful in clarifying issues involved in peer observation and in raising awareness and sensitivity when conducting this process.

To further an understanding of peer observation and related issues, another distinction has been made between teacher training and teacher development. In effect, it was pointed out that teacher training is a process of external intervention through a specific course of action with a view to improving knowledge and skills of a teacher. On the other hand, teacher development was recognized as a more personal and internal process of maturity that occurs within the teacher as a result of being involved in teaching, in observing other teachers, in reading about teaching, or in other similar transactions.

Other practical matters of peer observation were then discussed and practiced afterwards. These matters include contracts with peers to observe their classes, techniques of note-taking during the observation process, and other issues regarding institutional culture. In order to systematize the observation process, the presenters suggested what they called "the contract-observation." It is essentially an agreement between the observer and the observed in which the focus of observation, its timing and duration, and its resolution or expected conclusion are set forth. In other words, what the observer would be looking for or at in the classroom, the length of observation, as well as whether there would be feedback afterwards and the nature of this feedback are predetermined in agreement between the two parties.

Some participants thought that such a contract might organize the process itself, but it would also formalize a process that should be kept informal. Nevertheless, participants were asked to role-play the entire observation process, including the contract part, and to record their reactions for further discussion.

The role-play was successful as it allowed participants to fully absorb the process and refine their understanding of its elements and related issues. The discussions that followed, notwithstanding, have revolved around the definition of peer observation and its applicability in a particular institution or situation.

Based on the information gathered in such discussions, a number of definitions were generated, fortunately emphasizing the same theme and elements. The following definition, nevertheless, captures most of the elements discussed and presented by the majority of participants: "Peer observation is a process in which an equal (e.g., a teacher) observes another equal in the process of teaching for the purpose of either learning, professional development, evaluation, or other similar objectives." Although evaluation was not particularly emphasized in this seminar as one of peer observation functions, it was generally recognized as one of the possible outcomes of this process. Therefore it was included in the definition.

Conclusion

The seminar succeeded in achieving its immediate objectives and in bringing the issue of peer observation to the forefront as a powerful tool in teacher training and development. There was almost unanimous agreement among participants that peer observation as discussed in this seminar can further teacher training and development efforts in foreign language training programs in general. Nevertheless, there was also a widespread recognition of the obstacles and challenges that might hinder the implementation of this innovation in such programs.

Some of the matters that were raised and discussed included time and administrative constraints, instructors' attitudes and expectations, and cultural idiosyncrasies that might exist in some institutions.

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It was apparent from the discussion that having workshops, seminars, or conferences is perhaps much easier than introducing and implementing a systematic process of peer observation in a particular institution. Nevertheless, participants were left with the challenge of presenting this idea to their respective institutions. The challenge, in my opinion, is not in presenting the idea itself, but in convincing teachers that peer observation is an integral part of their professional development, and hence gaining their support and acceptance for the entire process. Perhaps a bigger challenge lies in getting administrators and supervisors to recognize the immense role that peer observation can play in teachers' professional development and to convince them to create the incentives and the atmosphere to encourage teachers to participate in this process of self-development.

Author

ALAA ELGHANNAM, Assistant Professor, Middle East One School, Defense Langugae Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: instructional technology and evaluation.

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Language for a Lifetime
1997 Command Language Program Manager Seminar

Lidia Woytak
Academic Journals

From May 12th through the 17th the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) hosted the Third Annual Command Language Program (CLP) Manager Seminar, with the theme of *Language for a Lifetime.* The seminar that started only a few years ago with a handful of people has grown very quickly into a gathering of over 200 participants.

The Third Annual Seminar was opened up by Colonel Daniel D. Devlin, DLIFLC and Presidio of Monterey (POM) Commander and DLIFLC Commandant. In the welcoming remarks, Colonel Devlin stated that the theme of *Language for a Lifetime* is essential in mapping careers of military linguists for professional and economic reasons. Addressing these linguists, Colonel Devlin asked:

- Are we serving your needs?
- What can we do better?
- How can we improve our programs?

Colonel Devlin explained to the audience at large that the DLIFLC graduates, the future military linguists, are turned over to CLP managers for maintenance, sustainment, and enhancement of language skills. He expressed hope that all commanders understand that importance of the CLP mission and assist managers in the difficult task of building language maintenance into linguists' schedules. Further, he informed the audience that due to a shortage of linguists in all services, DLIFLC now is training more students in its basic programs. He added that in these times of shrinking resources, the Institute does it, regrettably, at the expense of enrollments in intermediate and advanced courses.

Colonel Devlin stated that he is trying to change the sequencing of the training pipeline for DLIFLC students. He said, "It makes no sense that we spend a lot of time training basic linguists here and then just as they reach the peak of their language capability, we drop them in a hole for about three to six months where they get very little or no language instruction and by the time they get to you in the field, they've degraded at least a plus or maybe even a number."

Focusing on the concept of *Language for a Lifetime,* Colonel Devlin stated that DLIFLC is building a more ambitious program to support linguists worldwide. He stated, "We are putting together a much wider capability, a much larger capability and, within a year, a much deeper capability in language instruction on the Internet." Colonel Devlin announced that already this summer DLIFLC will come up with its first language training modules on the Internet. He promised maintenance and even enhancement support not only by computer-assisted materials, but also by providing on-line assistance from teachers at DLIFLC.

Concluding his address succinctly, "My goal in life is to put better linguists in the field," Colonel Devlin turned to introduce the guest speaker, Colonel James H. Hilliard, Commander of the Medina Regional Signals Operations Center (RSOC) in Texas. Colonel Hilliard, one of the major users of DLIFLC linguists, stated that he would like to spend less time doing things that could be done at the Institute. He pointed out that the world has changed dramatically since 1989 and that today's military linguists need to be more linguistically smart in a language because they are involved in treaty monitoring, the war on drugs, and other sophisticated assignments.

Thus, if Colonel Hilliard *were a king for a day*, he would change three things. First, he would raise the level of the basic training at DLI to 3/3/3. Second, echoing Colonel Devlin's remarks, Colonel Hilliard pointed out that he would change the training pipeline for military linguists. He explained that currently DLIFLC graduates are sent to a training school for six to eight months before he gets them. Thus he has to spend about 90 days trying to bring them up to where they were around graduation time. Therefore he recommended that they should go first to a military training, second to DLIFLC, and then directly to him, the user. Third, he would increase the information flow between DLIFLC and the field. He recommended more reliance on e-mail, virtual collocation, and the Internet as means of communication. Colonel Hilliard, who has been working with linguists for years, stated that only since Colonel Devlin has taken command has anyone from DLIFLC asked him how his linguists were performing in the field.

As the next order of business, Command Language Program of the Year Awards were presented to representatives of the Air Force, Army, Marine Corps, and Navy. Medina ROSC representing the Air Force won the Command Language Program of the Year Award followed by Army, Marine Corps, and Navy runner-ups who also vied for the honor.

On behalf of Medina ROSC, Colonel Hilliard accepted the CLP of the Year Award. He was followed by Mr. Frank Buschgans, the CLP Manager at Medina. Mr. Buschgans informed the audience that the Medina program consists of approximately 600 linguists, mostly Spanish and Russian. He stated that modular training and seminars are keys to their success. Further, he pointed out that he built a language center, structured mandatory proficiency-based training of 12 hours per month, and put in a diagnostic test following which all military linguists had to document their progress. Next Mr. Buschgans stated that in addition to the diagnostic testing, their evaluation program contains DLPTs, questionnaires, and after-action reports. He stated that the latter aims to answer, "Are we providing quality linguists that are able to conform to any type of worldwide situation?"

Further, expressing concerns over training funds, Mr. Buschgans appealed for improved coordination and closer cooperation for effective use of resources. He indicated that due to lack of resources, their center—currently open 24 hours and 7 days a week—will have to cut its hours and days of operation. Consequently, he stated he would like DLIFLC to automate the Medina diagnostic tests by putting them on CD-ROM database or LingNet.

The 201st Military Intelligence (MI) Brigade at Fort Lewis was distinguished as the Army CLP of the Year. Accepting the Army CLP of the Year Award on behalf of the 201st MI Brigade, Staff Sergeant Rocke Mullen described language program at the Brigade. He stated that the linguists there have a foreign language center consisting of a language and a computer labs with access to SCOLA and two classrooms. He praised Ms. Ivonne Pavelek, a language coordinator, for her assistance and guidance. He stated that Fort Lewis linguists enhance their motivation by publishing a newsletter, participating in the Linguist of the Year Program, and in local recruiting programs. He further informed the audience that their linguists are evaluated by a global and special skills test, a human competency test, foreign language Olympics, and by performing in such areas of operation as Japan, Australia, and Korea. He stated that each area posed different challenges. In Somalia, for example, due to a lack of military linguists, they had to overcome a linkage problem between civilian linguists and military commanders. In Haiti, he continued, exemplary performance of his Fort Lewis linguists helped to save lives.

The Second Radio Battalion at Camp LeJeune, North Carolina, won the CLP Award for the Marine Corps. The award was accepted by Sergeant Bianca Toscano who stated that 77 percent of their lin-

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guists—mostly Arabic, Korean, Spanish, and Russian—are 2/2/2 or better on Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). She added that almost half of their linguists are deployed in South America.

Naval Security Group from Rota, Spain, won the Navy Award for the CLP of the Year. The award was accepted by Senior Chief Petty Officer Ron Harris.

Award presentations were followed by a number of speakers who described testing, evaluation, technology integration, foreign language objectives, distance learning, LingNet, Internet training, and various specific language programs at DLI. Subsequently, on Wednesday, the seminar participants were invited to visit the technology exposition at the Community Center on the POM Annex. They also could tour the POM facilities and take Internet orientation workshops.

Roundtable discussions on linguist lifecycle, distance learning, budget, materials, motivation, reserve forces, contracts, immersion training, program content, evaluation, and language training detachments took place on Thursday morning. These discussions gave the opportunity to the users to express their needs and concerns. Walking from table to table, one could hear comments regarding the quality of proficiency tests, the relationship between instruction and testing, and requests for more emphasis on teaching speaking and writing skills. Following two-hour discussions in groups of ten people, a speaker from each group provided a summary for the entire audience.

Lifecycle. Such issues as language retention, motivation, space imbalance, attrition at DLIFLC, and crosstraining were thoroughly discussed at the roundtable on linguist lifecycle. Since the discussants agreed that it is impossible to describe a generic model of a linguist lifecycle without entering service, unit, and language distinctions, they formulated five recommendations that would lead to an improved lifecycle for a linguist: (1) identify language by position and code; (2) identify how the linguist is used; (3) identify what a linguist should be doing in an ideal world; (4) teach the commanders to manage a linguist unit; (5) identify the resources that would bring the linguists up to the required proficiency level.

Budget. The roundtable discussion group came up with several recommendations: (1) Fence the training money exclusively for that purpose by creating two separate funds, one for training and the other one for contingency operations. Postpone the April-May pullout of the unused training funds to higher headquarters till later. (2) Improve communication and coordination among linguists by placing a database (read-only file) for allocation of languages to units on Lingnet, hot tips and requests for help, and information about new DLIFLC training courses and materials. (3) Fund video tele-training (VTT) directly instead of allocating separate funds locally.

Materials. The roundtable discussed locating and accessing materials, reproduction and distribution, and hardware-software variances. The group stated that Lingnet should be used as a central depository of materials. Linguists should know whom to contact by checking quarterly CLP listings. Further, major commands and other organizations should be encouraged to use Lingnet because the materials, in many cases, are available but not shared. He added that currently DLIFLC is filing the materials by language and by level. The use of LingNet as a souce of materials for all units will reduce the cost through sharing. The group also appealed for inclusion of copyright information and release forms on LingNet so that linguists would know how to request a copyright release. Discussing hardware-software variances, the roundtable stated that there is a need for a common ground so that all units can utilize DLIFLC products and that DLIFLC will periodically upgrade system configurations. Software users should check the reading text file because it contains essential information. The group recommended all CLP managers reserve a quarter of the computer budget funds on maintenance and upgrade and buy standard hardware because it reduces the need for peripheral hardware and thus reduces the procurement costs.

Motivation. Commander support is the most critical element in motivation. Therefore, it is essential to tie-in language proficiency to readiness and to commander's dispositions. Higher headquarters should authorize more language education for the commanders and offer more intermediate and advanced training for the linguists in the field. The group indicated that motivation is strengthened by offering continual, not occasional, training.

In the area of linguist recognition, the group recommended noticeable salary increases for linguists proficient in two languages. Also, the group suggested contacting local businesses to create awards.

Contracting. The roundtable referred listeners to a model of a contract in the binder. It is important to document every contract and be aware that one contract affects another. To avoid perils of contracting, CLP managers may find it helpful to improve their current contract forms.

Immersion. Despite a variety of backgrounds and a variety of definitions of immersion, everybody in the group representing MACOMs, CLP, and reserves spoke in favor of immersion. Participants indicated that they would like to share lessons learned from the immersion programs and they would like to put this information into a DLIFLC "how-to" pamphlet. Such a pamphlet would be user-friendly and would also contain information on setting up an immersion program, getting funding for it, evaluating it, and justifying it. Commanders need to appreciate the linguistic and cultural benefits of an immersion program and consequently let them participate in it.

Content. There is a lack of refresher and maintenance materials targeting levels 1+ and 2. According to the group, DLIFLC could support language maintenance if diagnostic tests were used. Such tests would identify linguists' needs in a language. CD-ROMs could be useful in administration of such tests and, following a proper diagnosis, DLIFLC could provide guidance on designing a language program. In reference to low density languages, for example Urdu, the group recommended sharing materials to reduce cost.

Evaluation. The group tackled the issues of a CLP manager's self evaluation, global versus technical skills evaluation, and testing needs. DLIFLC Regulations 350-9 and 350-16 containing the Model Program as well as the DLI's Language Training Needs Assessment may be used for CLP evaluation. Proficiency Qualification Exams (PQEs) from NSA, TASS (The Total Army School System), and Fort Lewis forms for evaluation of technical skills may be useful for many other organizations too. Further, the regional refresher courses taken by reserve linguists should also be evaluated. Although the DLIFLC staff could provide training by offering such courses as instructor qualification course, frequently they are not even notified. Criticizing overuse of DLPTs, the group called for DLIFLC's assistance in development of the mission-related diagnostic tests that would identify strong and weak areas of CLP linguists.

Distance Learning. Connectivity between the computerized linguists in the field was the major topic discussed. CLP linguists need more skill-specific training modules so they could perform better. Finally, the entire community must be involved in the exchange of information.

Reserves. This group attempted to address the problem of the reserve commanders who are given a mission impossible. They are get-

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ting soldiers with no language capabilities for billets requiring language skills. To solve this problem, the group recommended a change at the DA level that would establish a DLAB score requirement for entering soldiers. As a minimum, their DLAB would have to correspond to the DLAB score of the language they would need on the job. Subsequently, these soldiers would have to be offered training in the language in which they are supposed to perform. Additionally, echoing other groups, there was a call for placing training opportunities on Lingnet.

Language Training Detachments (LTD). The roundtable focused on the issues of requirements, diversity, and funding. Such factors as type and status (active or reserve) of a unit, location, and type of a language generate a variety of LTD requirements. Diversity is created by multi-language units and differing number of people within a language. Enhancement of language skills rather than just maintenance is a common need of all linguists. Elaborating on sources of funding, the group indicated that if the primary focus is on the requirements, "resources will come."

In the afternoon, Major Stephen M. Novak of Reserve Intelligence Oversight from the Office of the Secretary of Defense presented a proposal for virtual utilization and increased interconnectivity of linguists in the Armed Forces. He stated that in response to internal, political, and technological changes representatives of all services of the Department of Defense have been working for the past two years on a new congressional proposal.

Major Novak pointed out that the current situation is in need of improvement. From 1990 to 1996, at the expense of a quarter of a billion dollars, only 18% of the linguists have been 2/2/2 or better. Furthermore, he stated that many valuable linguists are leaving active components of the Armed Forces because their skills are not optimally utilized and thus their internal satisfaction is not strong enough to carry them through. He stated bluntly, "Linguists want to maximize their skills. They want to feel good about what they are doing." He emphasized that in response to a questionnaire probing their motivation, they listed monetary rewards only as a third incentive.

Major Novak stated that virtual utilization and interconnectivity are embedded in his proposal. According to his proposal, lifetime utilization of linguists is crucial. Such utilization would include senior NCOs (beyond E-7), warrant, and officer levels.

Further, Major Novak identified three pools of linguists: active

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component, reserves, and native enclaves. He stated that linguists no longer have to go to a central location, now, through the use of e-mail and Internet, the location goes to the linguists. He further elaborated that through virtual location every reservist, every unit will be hubbed into one huge national cluster. This cluster will be overseen by the board consisting of Army, the Navy, and Air Force representatives. Additionally, the board will be assisted by the Defense Language Working Group, and the Program Management Office. Program Management Office will be involved in assessing linguists, unit assignments, and providing language enhancement opportunities to the linguists.

Next, Major Novak described a database that would include information about language requirements and linguistic levels of reservists. This database would allow linguists to update their data continually. It would track all linguists and thus it would provide a basis for an electronic employment. Further the database would interconnect linguists for resourcing and mission accomplishment.

Major Novak explained that the implementation of the new policy will be supported from funds gained through reduction of redundant programs, such as financing representatives of the Armed Forces in every state. Finally, he expressed hope that utilization will increase the number of 2/2/2 linguists from 18 to 60 percent.

The proposal unveiled by Major Novak drew a lot of interest. Many language managers asked questions throughout the presentation and afterwards a group of linguists surrounded him to discuss the matter further.

On Friday, Colonel Eugene F. Beauvais, the DLIFLC Assistant Commandant, stated that the 1997 Command Language Program Manager Seminar had been a great success. The Colonel observed that the seminar provided a forum for sharing ideas, experiences, and suggestions that otherwise would not be vocalized.

Moreover, Colonel Beauvais pointed out that the seminar demonstrated a need for a tightened cooperation between the CLP managers, the Institute, and the higher headquarters. Specifically, Colonel Beauvais expressed concern over contractors' performance for CLPs. He stated that the issue of contract deliveries needs to be scheduled for examination and action. Further he stated that the Command Language Program Manager Seminar plays a leading role in maintaining instructional quality at DLIFLC.

In his closing remarks, Colonel Beauvais thanked the guests for their active participation and the organizers for making the Seminar a reality. He extended special kudos to the staff of the Operations, Plans, and Programs Directorate, especially Chief Warrant Officer 3 Fred Runo, Captain Ken Lasure, Senior Master Sergeant Michael Scalia, Master Sergeant Martin Dooley, and Mrs. Mary Hague.

In summary, the *Language for a Lifetime* seminar generated numerous ideas aiming at establishing and supporting a lifecycle career for a military linguist. The most frequently repeated ones were: use Lingnet, share training materials, improve information flow, provide steady training opportunities, develop more diagnostic tests, go digital with instruction and testing materials, educate commanders, and create CLP databases.

Through such actions as the CLPM Seminar, DLIFLC is defining the role of education in society. The Institute is sending a message to the community that education and performance are not separate phenomena but two complementary processes. In time, the educational community at large, universities and colleges worldwide, will understand that the goal of education is not just handing out a diploma but enabling a person to function effectively in a world of need.

Author

LIDIA WOYTAK, Editor, Academic Journals. Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: foreign language education, technical writing.

REVIEW

Ha-'Ilton Ke-emtsa'i Lehora'at Safah Shniyah. "The Newspaper as a Means of Second Language Instruction." (1991). By Ester Bahat. University of Tel-Aviv. Pp. 59.

Reviewed by SADOK MASLIYAH
Middle East One School

Newspapers offer interesting and authentic materials that second language learners can use to improve their reading skills. Since a newspaper deals with real events and issues, it invites the reader to react and express himself. A newspaper can also be an effective tool for building vocabulary.

The stated purpose of Bahat's book is to give instructors ideas for using newspapers in teaching. The author's approach and the methods and exercises she suggests result from her many years of using newspapers to teach Hebrew to immigrants who came to Israel from diverse backgrounds and with varying levels of education.

The author advises instructors to scan newspapers to find passages that students would find interesting and that would elicit reaction. She says the level of difficulty of the passages should be a little higher than the class level so that the student is challenged. Short passages are usually preferable for beginning students, but long passages can also be chosen because they can furnish beginners with material for more than one lesson. Long passages can also be shortened by deleting some parts.

The author cautions that even advanced students can be apprehensive about reading newspapers because of widespread belief that understanding a newspaper requires an extensive vocabulary and a thorough knowledge of the target language. To help overcome this apprehension, the author suggests that instructors select passages on well-known topics.

At the beginning of instruction, the author says, a student can read a passage aloud with the instructor listening to assist with pronunciation. Then the instructor can ask questions about the passage. The questions can be about virtually anything in the passage. Students can then demonstrate that they understand the passage by reading it again.

A lesson might include four or five short passages on different topics. The instructor can ask the student to point out names of people, places, institutions, special terminology, or countable objects that are numbered in the passage.

The author says it is usually preferable for the student to have an opportunity to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from context rather than having the words explained immediately. She says the learner should be made to realize that often he can understand the general meaning of a passage without knowing all the words. Knowing 60 percent of the words in a passage is sometimes sufficient for understanding it.

To help the student read a long passage, the author suggests that the instructor prepare a list of new words for the student. Such a list might deal only with specific lexical items, such as time-related words for "recently," "yesterday," "last night," "two weeks ago," etc. Another way to use a newspaper passage in an exercise is to ask the student to underline the essential elements or the main ideas in the passage.

The author also recommends an exercise in which the student is asked to find certain pieces of information on a given page in the newspaper. This exercise aims at increasing the learner's speed in finding information while improving his reading skills. The author says she has found this to be an especially good exercise for the last ten minutes of an instructional hour.

Calendar of Events*

1997

20 July-1 August, *Taos Institute for Language Teachers (French, German, Russian, Spanish),* East Lansing. Information George F. Peters, CLEAR, A-126 Wells Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824-1027; (517) 432-2286, Fax (517) 432-0473, Email [clear@pilot.msu.edu].

5-7 August, *Problems of Teaching Modern Hebrew*, Jerusalem. Information Ben-Zion Fischler, Council on the Teaching of Hebrew, P.O.B. 7413, Jerusalem 91073, Israel.

12-16 August, *IALL/Language Laboratory Association of Japan*, Victoria, BC, Canada. Information (604) 721-8294, Fax (604) 721-8778, Email [fleatIII@call.uvic.ca], URL [http://web.uvic.ca/hrd/fleat3].

20-22 August, *OPI Training Workshop (French, German, Spanish)*, Lisle, IL. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

4 September, *Association of Literary Semantics*, Freiburg. Information Monika Fludernik, English Department, University of Freiburg, D-79085, Germany.

24-27 September, *OPI Training Workshop (English-LCT, French, German, Japanese, Russian, Spanish)*, Madison, WI. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

25-28 September, *German Studies Association,* Washington, D.C. Information German Studies Association, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85287-3204.

4-5 October, *Carolinas Symposium on British Studies,* Augusta. Information William S. Brockington, Department of History, University of South Carolina at Aiken, Aiken, SC 29801.

7-11 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina,* location to be announced. Information Mary Lynn Redmond, 6 Sun Oak Court, Greensboro, NC 27410; Fax (910) 759-4591, Email [redmond@wfu.edu].

17-20 November, *OPI Training Workshop (Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Spanish),* Nashville. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

18-20 November, *Educational Exchange,* Barcelona. Information CIEE, 205 East 42nd St., New York, NY 10017-5706; (212) 822-2699, Email [conference@ciee.org].

*Courtesy of *The Modern Language Journal* (University of Wisconsin Press)

19-20 November, *National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages*, Nashville. Information Sharon M. Watts, 607 S. 123 St., Omaha, NE 68154; (402) 557-2440, Email [swatts@ops.esu19.k12.ne.us]

20-22 November, *European Association for International Education*, Barcelona. Information Conference Director, EAIE, Van Diemenstraat 344, 1013 CR Amsterdam, The Netherlands; Fax (31) (20) 620-9406; Email [eaie@eaie.nl].

21-23 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Lan guages,* Nashville. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

21-23 November, *American Association of Teachers of French,* Nashville. Information AATF,57 E.Armory Dr., Champaign, IL 61820; (217) 333-2842, Fax (217) 333-5850, Email [fmajatf@vmd.cso.uiuc.edu].

21-23 November, *American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese,* Nashville. Information AATSP, Frasier Hall #8, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639; (970) 351-1090, Fax (970) 351-1095, Email [seelsandste@bentley.univnorthco.edu].

21-23 November, *American Association of Teachers of German*, Nashville. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609) 795-5553, Fax (609) 795-9398, Email [73740.3231@compuserve.com].

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America,* Toronto. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212) 477-9863, Email [convention@mla.org].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages*, Toronto. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520) 885-2663, Email [76703.2063@compuserve.com].

1998

26-28 February, *Southern Conference on Language Teaching with Foreign Language Association of Georgia,* Savannah. Information Lee Bradley, Valdosta State University, Valdosta, GA 31698; (912) 333-7358, Fax (912) 333-7389, Email [lbradley@grits.valdosta.peachnet.edu].

14-17 March, *American Association of Applied Linguistics,* Seattle. Information AAAL, 7630 West 145th Street, Suite 202, Apple Valley, MN 55124; (612) 953-0805, Fax (612) 891-1800, Email [howe@mr.net].

17-21 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages,* Seattle. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email [conv@tesol.edu].

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26-29 March, *Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* Milwaukee. Information CSCTFL, Rosalie Cheatham, University of Arkansas-Little Rock, 2801 S. University Avenue, Little Rock, AR 72204; (501) 569-8159, Fax (501) 569-3220, Email [rmcheatham@ualr.edu].

16-19 April, *Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* New York. Information Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email [neconf@dickinson.edu].

24-26 April, *Pacific Northwest Council for Languages,* Boise. Information PNCFL, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Oregon State University, 210 Kidder Hall, Corvallis, OR 97331-4603; Fax (541) 737-3563, Email [verzascr@cla.orst.edu].

23-26 July, *American Association of Teachers of French,* Montreal. Information Jayne Abrate, Executive Director, AATF, Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901.

September dates to be announced, *International Congress of Slavists,* Cracow. Information Robert Rothstein, Department of Slavic Languages, Herter Hall, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003-3940.

27-31 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina,* location to be announced. Information Mary Lynn Redmond, 6 Sun Oak Court, Greensboro, NC 27410; Fax (910) 759-4591, Email [redmond@wfu.edu].

20-22 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* Chicago. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

20-22 November, *American Association of Teachers of German,* Chicago. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609) 795-5553, Fax (609) 795-9398, Email [73740.3231@compuserve.com].

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America,* location to be announced. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212) 477-9863, Email [convention@mla.org].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages*, location to be announced. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [76703.2063@compuserve.com].

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8-14 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, New York. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email [conv@tesol.edu].

11-13 March, *Southern Conference on Language Teaching*, Virginia Beach. Information Lee Bradley, Valdosta State University, Valdosta, GA 31698; (912)333-7358, Fax (912)333-7389, Email [lbradley@grits.valdosta.peachnet.edu].

7-10 April, *Pacific Northwest Council for Languages*, Tacoma. Information PNCFL, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Oregon State University, 210 Kidder Hall, Corvallis, OR 97331-4603; Fax (541) 737-3563, Email [verzascr@cla.orst.edu].

8-11 April, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, New York. Information Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email [neconf@dickinson.edu].

19-21 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Dallas. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

19-21 November, *American Association of Teachers of German*, Dallas. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609) 795-5553, Fax (609)795-9398, Email [73740.3231@compuserve.com].

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17-19 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Boston. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

17-19 November, *American Association of Teachers of German*, Boston. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609) 795-5553, Fax (609) 795-9398, Email [73740.3231@compuserve.com].

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16-18 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* Washington, D.C. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl].

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Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLI faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit a previously unpublished article, a review, a description ion of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession. *Dialog on Language Instruction* accepts only original manuscripts with the understanding that they have not been submitted for publication elsewhere.

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Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and list findings. The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References.* The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly,* 16 (1), pp. 93-95.

Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of the manuscript should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g., (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript. Notes should be used for substantive information only, and they should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript. Subsequently they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes.*

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, video tapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but brief statement of the works contents and a critical assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

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Manuscripts should be typed on 8.5 x 11 in. paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1.25 in. on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized. Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An authors name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLI), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

Author

JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306. Specializations: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

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2. Disk is formatted as: double___ high density___
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Each author will be informed of the evaluation results. In general, a manuscript will be accepted for publication if two anonymous readers recommend acceptance, and, by the same token, manuscripts not recommended by the readers for publication will be rejected. In cases in which one reader recommends acceptance, and the second one, rejection—a third reader will be asked to review the manuscript.

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A manuscript accepted for publication may be accepted "as is" or may require certain revisions which may target the need to consider other sources, or to elaborate on a certain point; or, finally, may address such minor details as a typo or a lack of citation. In the latter case the author is asked to revise it and subsequently the editor checks whether the author complied thoroughly with the guidance.

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Frequently the manuscripts are rejected due to such major flaws as:

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- lack of organization
- poor quality of writing
- lack of applicability to instruction

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In some cases, an author whose manuscript was already rejected decides to revise the manuscript thoroughly and to resubmit it for publication. Since the quality of the version is unpredictable, no promises can be issued to the author regarding publication.

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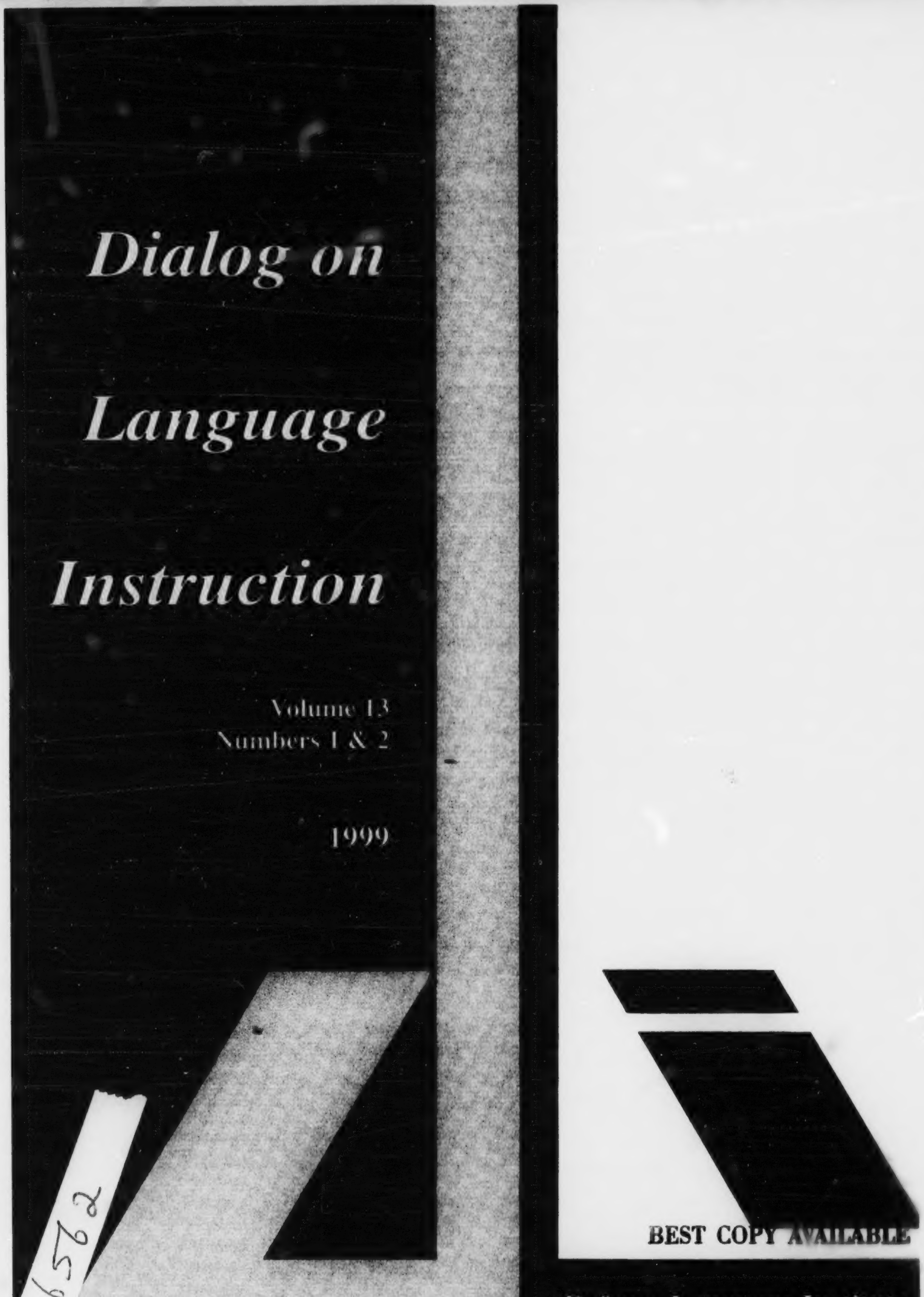

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ATTN: Lidia Woytak, Editor (AP-AJ)
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944 -- 5006
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DSN: 878-5638
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Test Usefulness in Alternative Assessment

Margaret van Daalen
Test Development and Standards Division

Alternative assessment is a recent development in the testing field. It refers to "efforts that do not adhere to the traditional criteria of standardization, efficiency, cost-effectiveness, objectivity, and machine scorability." (Garcia & Pearson, 1994)

The idea of learners as active participants in evaluation is related to their role in the learner-centered classroom. This article explores test usefulness in alternative assessment as the main topic, and discusses the sub-topics of self-assessment, portfolios and diaries, video and peer observations, and peer assessment in separate sections as part of the literature review. The concept of washback (how the test affects processes of learning and instruction) and concerns about alternative assessment are subsequently addressed.

In the final section, the notion of a "unicycle" image is brought up in relation to alternative assessment in foreign language teaching and learning. The article finishes with a closer look at the use of self-assessment and relevance to the six qualities of test usefulness (Bachman & Palmer, 1995). Considerations for implementing alternative assessment in the foreign language classroom and benefits for teachers and learners are addressed as well.

Traditional Testing

Traditional testing usually brings to mind some kind of fear or distrust, not only in learners, but also in teachers. There are reasons for reluctance to administer tests and, according to Finocchiaro and Sako in 1983, "it is the lip service paid to the concept that all teachers and learners are different regarding personality, modes of learning, philosophy, affective and cognitive needs, when in reality tests prepared for diverse populations are administered without learner or teacher orientation and preparation."

Fortunately we have come a long way since 1983. However, the pendulum swing in approaches to language methodology, linguistic and teacher theories, and learner involvement and autonomy, has resulted in different views of teaching and testing. Along with the teaching for proficiency movement, the language teaching profession has shifted its perspective from "What is the best language teaching method for a particular learner?" to "How can we best promote learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom?"—a shift away from the teacher-dominated classroom toward a learner-centered environment. The learner is seen as an active participant who focuses on processes underlying language learning and patterns of language use. The focus on the learners and their autonomy in language learning (e.g., developing internal criteria for success) has caused a surge of interest in learner styles and strategies, learner processes, and learner awareness.

As a result, assessment efforts are not viewed to be the sole responsibility of the teacher, but regarded as a mutual responsibility of teacher and learner, moving the learner to a place of active participation in evaluation matters which have bearing on the learning situation (i.e., assessment for formative purposes, classroom-based). As such, there appears to be a trend toward more innovative and alternative informal measures assessing learners' progress. One might encounter different terminology in the field of testing referring to alternative assessments, such as complementary, performance, supplementary, and multiple.

Since testing is increasingly viewed as one aspect of a larger domain, assessment, a variety of formal and informal procedures are now used to find out what foreign language learners know and can do in a language on a continuous basis. Thus with alternative assessment, the focus is on the learning process rather than the language as an end product. These assessment procedures do not take the place of summative assessment and standardized test scores, but complement these scores with a host of ongoing and comprehensive assessment measures. Liz Hamp-Lyons (1997) in a model of Characteristics of Performance Assessments and Standardized Tests adapted from Meisels, Dorfman, and Steele (1995) shows that performance assessment is longitudinal, has contextual objectives, monitors progress, promotes learner learning, enhances learner motivation, is instructionally relevant, informs instructional decisions, and contributes to classroom change. Standardized tests, on the other hand, are a static view of achievement, have restrictive behavior sampling, reflect speed and accuracy, promote skill in test taking, promote learner anxiety, are instructionally dependent, impose institutional change, and justify bureaucratic decisions. Last, but not least, performance assessments are criterion referenced and standardized tests are norm-referenced.

In light of these characteristics, one can understand where the issue of test usefulness comes in. This issue was raised by Bachman and Palmer (1995) who stated that in all situations where tests are used we need to ask ourselves a fundamental question: "How useful is the information provided by the test for its intended purpose?" Simply using a test does not make it useful. Usefulness is described by Bachman and Palmer in terms of a set of six qualities:

- **Reliability** (accuracy of a test in measuring consistently what it is supposed to measure).
- **Validity** (degree to which a test measures what it is designed to measure).
- **Authenticity** (characteristics of a test task).
- **Interactiveness** (topical knowledge, affective schemata and metacognitive strategies, the relationship between input and expected responses).
- **Impact** (how the test affects processes of learning and instruction (e.g., washback)).
- **Practicality** (feasibility or usability of a test in the situation for which it is intended).

The overall usefulness (meaningful rather than authentic) of a test is to be optimized and a balance is to be developed among these qualities.

Reviewing literature through the 1980s regarding language testing in general and classroom tests, I was struck by Cohen's suggestions for *Promising Classroom Testing Procedures* (1994, based on Shohamy, 1985) and what I consider their relation to issues of alternative assessment. The following is a partial list of promising classroom testing procedures (Shohamy, 1985):

1. Broadening the scope of what is included in assessment from tests alone to a variety of formal and informal assessment techniques.
2. Viewing assessment as an opportunity for meaningful interaction between teacher and learner.
3. Judging learners on the basis of the knowledge they have rather than on what they do not know.

4. Using assessment measures intended to help learners to improve their skills.

5. Making sure that the criteria for success on an assessment task are made clear to the respondents.

6. Having learners' grades reflect their performance on a *set* of tests representing different assessment methods rather than being based on just one measure.

7. Training the test-takers in test-taking strategies if performance on the assessment task could benefit from such training.

Considering some of these procedures, a linkage to the present day learner-centered classroom can be made. In other words, one can detect from this information dated more than 10 years ago a tendency for a shift from product-oriented assessment toward process-oriented assessment. As mentioned before, there are various alternative assessment measures currently applied in the classroom. I will review self-assessment, portfolios, and diaries, video and peer observation, and peer assessment. I will also address concerns about alternative assessment.

Types of Alternative Assessment

Self-Assessment

There has been a surge of interest in self-assessment of foreign language proficiency. As learners become more independent, an effective way to assess their progress is by self-assessment, which can take many forms, ranging from questionnaires (descriptive rating scales and checklists) to the use of video and audio cassettes, goal cards, or reading logs.

In 1988, Janssen-van Dieten in her study investigating the validity of self-assessment in the education of adult learners of Dutch as a second language, cites the importance of self-assessment, "the main reason being the belief that reflection on one's proficiency and insight into evaluation criteria will stimulate self-management, motivation and goal orientation." Even though self-assessment was thought to be important, the investigation indicated that the subjects were unexpectedly confronted with the kind of evaluation for which they were not trained. Janssen-van Dieten concluded that it seemed not possible to show a significant tendency for ability to self-assess reliably in this study.

In light of learner awareness in the 1990s, as opposed to the philosophies of the early 1980s, the above-mentioned subjects were apparently not equipped with the tools necessary for becoming autonomous learners. Lacking critical awareness of their language learning processes may have had an impact on the self-assessment of the study. It might have prevented the learners from gaining insight in the evaluation criteria; after all, learner autonomy and self-assessment are linked to each other.

A significant amount of research has been conducted regarding self-assessment of communicative language ability. It indicates that self-assessment of such ability is promoted when communication in the classroom is conducted as language use for the purpose of expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning, requiring two or more autonomous participants.

Bachman and Palmer (1989) attempted to measure the trait structure of an experimental self-rating test of communicative language abilities, i.e., grammatical competence(including morphology and syntax), pragmatic competence (the ability to express and comprehend messages including the subtraits of vocabulary, cohesion, and organization) and socio-linguistic competence (including the subtraits of ability to distinguish registers, nativeness, and control of non-literal (figurative) language and relevant cultural allusions). They concluded that self-ratings can be reliable and valid measures of communicative language ability.

Shohamy (1995), in addressing the Psychometric Properties of Alternative Assessment, assessed reading and writing skills of immigrant children. The outcome of the study was to be used as feedback for teachers and learners in outlining instructional and learning strategies. Multiple assessment procedures were applied: tests, different types of items and tasks, self-assessment questionnaires, observations by two teachers, and a portfolio (language samples selected from a given list). In her conclusions, Shohamy stated that a learner's score could have been based on the test and a very small portion of self-assessment. She also mentions the need for on-going research on psychometric features of alternative assessment as part of the development of alternative assessment procedures.

Oscarson (1989) addressed the rationale of self-assessment of language proficiency (though he cautions about the possible need for further empirical substantiation). In itemized form, he stated propositions that self-assessment:

1. Promotes learning: training in evaluation which in itself is beneficial to learning.
2. Raises level of awareness: by asking and answering

questions like "What have I been doing lately?" and "How well have I done?"

3. Improves goal-orientation: raising level of awareness and improving knowledge of the variability of language learning objectives of learners.

4. Expands range of assessment: the learners' own appreciation of their competence in the language is superior to that of an outside tester (namely in areas of affective learning).

5. Shares assessment burden: the possibility that learner participation may alleviate the assessment burden on the teacher.

6. Creates beneficial postcourse effects: teaching learners how to carry on learning the language autonomously is considered an important objective in foreign language instruction.

Oscarson sees the importance of giving learners practice in autonomous learning and self-directed evaluation, especially if they are unaccustomed to the notion of self-reliance. Propositions 3 and 4 correlate with Janssen-van Dieten's view of importance of self-assessment. Oscarson also sees computer-assisted assessment as a rapidly developing field providing opportunities for learners to monitor their learning.

Portfolios and Diaries

According to Paulson, Paulson, and Meyer (1991), a portfolio is a "purposeful collection of learner work that exhibits the learner's efforts, progress, and achievements in one or more areas. The collection must include learner participation in selecting contents, the criteria for judging merit, and evidence of learner self-reflection." Portfolios have emerged because of the rise of assessment practices that are holistic, learner-centered, performance-based, process-oriented, integrated and multidimensional. Portfolios tune up learners with their strengths and instructional needs. They have been shown to be great means of assessing the learners' achievement, effort, improvement, and self-evaluation. Portfolios serve as a guide for learners to make choices, and demonstrate how they reason, create, strategize, and reflect. Portfolio assessment is a technique for qualitative evaluation. It is characterized by the maintenance of descriptive records of a variety of a learner's work over time; the purposeful and systematic collection of learner work that reflects growth toward the achievement of specific curricular objectives; the inclusion of learner self-evaluation as well as teacher evaluation.

A great deal of the active portfolio work has been conducted in

ESL/EFL classrooms. Tracey (1995) used portfolios in an ESL setting, for a reading project, which helped build an assessment partnership between learners and teacher in the portfolio classroom. The learners appeared to be taking more risks in their writing, instead of relying on the teacher to provide focus. Goal cards, planning sheets, and a daily learning log were created as part of the portfolio. Goal-centered activities helped build the partnership between teacher and learner.

Gottlieb (1995) documented a CRADLE approach to portfolio development, to be envisioned along a continuum of six prototype portfolio categories: Collections, Reflections, Assessment, Documentation, Linkages, and Evaluation. According to Gottlieb, when a portfolio is used as an assessment tool, reliability and validity of the contents needs to be established and maintained. Teachers need training to gain acceptable levels of reliability for the portfolio. The move along the CRADLE continuum is projected to be a three- to five-year journey in the ESL instructional setting.

Huerta-Macias (1995) proposed Triangulation of Data encompassing Learner Employer/Co-worker, and Teacher. In alternative assessment, triangulation refers to the collection of data/information from three different sources/perspectives. It can be applied in varying contexts, and because information from various sources is included in the process, learner growth can be more reliably assessed.

Hamp-Lyons (1997) developed a set of expectations for the behaviors associated with performance assessment, for the context of portfolio assessment-based courses, to see if actual behaviors show features predicted by the model. Hamp-Lyons' descriptions for "characteristics of second language writing portfolio assessments" provide a framework for investigating data regarding portfolio-based assessment construct validity. The framework covers claims for portfolios, teacher strategies, writer strategies, and rater strategies.

Dialog journals (diaries)—language learning diaries—have been widely used to discover learner anxiety, learning strategies (e.g., Bailey, 1983). The longitudinal Dialog Journal study of learners of Dutch as a foreign language (van Daalen, 1992), conducted at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), examined a relationship between end-of-course oral proficiency as measured by Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) oral proficiency interview results, and the type and amount of interactive writing in which the learners had engaged. Looking at the study in light of today's continuous assessment methods, some of the writing by the learners could be viewed as samples of writing similar to what could be encountered nowadays in a process portfolio. The dialog journals could thus become a process assessment package with incorporation of other components.

Video and Peer Observations

Using a video camera and task-based communicative activities for classroom oral testing, Haggstrom (1994) made oral testing a more realistic communicative experience. She found such testing less time-consuming to evaluate and learners found it more enjoyable and less stressful. By videotaping each learner at three different times during a 50-minute testing period, she ensured enough samples to evaluate their performance. The value of regular non-test mode videotaping as a tool for self-evaluation was stressed, and frequent videotaping prepared them for oral testing and real-world communication. This purported value corresponds with Messick's statement that "the move from learning exercises to test exercises should be seamless" (1996). This type of assessment promoted learning in addition to providing evaluative data. It also helped in reducing anxiety.

Peer Assessment

Murphy (1995) successfully enabled his learners to experience peer-assessed evaluations. Enjoyable tests may seem an oxymoron, according to Murphy (1995), "but putting the learners more interactively in the center of creating and administering the tests reduces anxiety as learners feel more in control and actually have fun." How does this work? Learners are engaged in the test-making process, by listing items they think they have learned over the past few weeks; the list is put in one handout given to them to study. Collaborative learning is encouraged. Learners are practicing negotiating input and making it comprehensible, by explaining known and unknown items. Learners give each other tests, orally, in pairs during class, while walking or sitting outside. Grades are negotiated with partners.

Murphy noted that "the main purpose of these tests is not evaluation but rather stimulation of effective language learning processes that can be used by learners to help them learn whatever they want." The most important evaluation is ultimately what they think of themselves" (p. 14). Learner feedback seemed to be very positive and they appeared to work harder for these kinds of tests than the more traditional ones. I believe this points to one of the six qualities of test usefulness: impact or washback, e.g., how does the test affect processes of learning and instruction? This idea is echoed in Shohamy's (1990) statement about language testing priorities for this decade, namely a "more expanded view of language testing so as to create a positive washback effect through tests, and improve foreign language learning."

Washback

According to Bailey (1996), "washback is generally defined as the influence of testing on teaching and learning" (p. 259). Further, she states, "A test will yield positive washback to the learner and to the program to the extent that it utilizes authentic tasks and authentic texts." (p. 276). Bailey concludes that "a test will promote beneficial washback to programs to the extent that it measures what programs intend to teach." If we intend our foreign language teaching to reflect the promotion of learner awareness, autonomy and authenticity, would alternative assessment be a way to facilitate positive washback? When Murphy's (1995) learners worked harder for the peer-assessed tests than the more traditional ones, might he have been talking about evidence of beneficial washback?

Hughes (1989) notes that before we decide that we cannot afford to test in a way that will promote beneficial washback, we have to ask ourselves a question, "What will be the cost of *not* achieving beneficial washback?" Hughes writes that to promote beneficial washback one should "base achievement tests on objectives rather than on detailed teaching and textbook content and they will provide a truer picture of what has actually been achieved. He emphasizes the importance of ensuring that the test is known and understood by learners and teachers. Potential for washback may not be realized if learners and teachers do not understand what the test demands of them." Again, with alternative assessment, the type of interaction involved between teacher and learners will leave no questions about what the test demands of them.

Hamp-Lyons (1997) sees the need for further studies: "We must conduct studies of the impact of alternative assessment, on the same basis that we apply to traditional forms of assessment. We cannot assume that because alternative assessments start from humanistic concerns they produce outcomes that do only good and no harm ..." However, it has been argued that the use of self-assessment mechanisms will promote positive washback.

Messick (1996) talks about a broader concept of washback, the need to look at test properties like authenticity and directness and the implications for test validity, and "then cast the issues in the broader context of a comprehensive view of construct validity." As stated before, simply using a test does not make it useful, which brings us to concerns about alternative assessment which are related to Bachman and Palmer's six qualities of test usefulness.

Concerns About Alternative Assessment

Huarta-Macias (1995) addressed objections regarding validity, reliability and objectivity of alternative assessment. Proponents of alternative assessment, according to Huarta-Macias, do not want to overlook the criteria of validity, reliability, and objectivity, but address concerns through terms used in qualitative research. "An instrument is deemed trustworthy if it has credibility (i.e., truth value) and auditability (i.e., consistency)." The following suggestions are made to ensure reliability in alternative assessments: design multiple tasks that lead to the same outcome, use trained judges working with clear criteria, form specific anchor pairs or performance behaviors, and monitor periodically to ensure that raters use criteria and standards in a consistent manner. As mentioned in this article, reliability is often ensured by triangulation. As applied to alternative assessment it refers to a collection of data/information from three different sources/perspectives.

Another concern often raised with regard to alternative assessment is the lack of objectivity. Huarta-Macias notes that even though standardized tests are described as objective, a "standardized test merely represents agreement among a number of people on scoring procedures, format and/or content for that specific test." One might argue that quantitative data, as from standardized tests, can be more subjective because numbers or statistics can be manipulated to reflect certain biases on the part of the researcher. Therefore, Huerta-Macias sees no reason to consider alternative assessment less objective than traditional testing.

In reference to psychometrics, Gottlieb (1995) argued "psychometric properties are defining criteria of portfolios that serve as a form of assessment. The heart of alternative assessment is anchored in rubrics that are aligned with specific tasks. These performance indicators, which may take the form of a checklist, a rating scale, or a matrix, serve as the yardstick for measurement." It seems to me from the literature I reviewed, that consistent efforts are being made to account for reliability, validity, and objectivity in alternative assessment. How about another quality of test usefulness, namely authenticity? What does it mean?

The issue of authenticity has always been an important part of any discussion on language testing. There is an argument that only "real language use" should be counted when assessing language ability. When we think of "authenticity" in language testing, Cohen (1994) quotes Bachman (1991) as identifying three alternate approaches to authenticity in language testing:

1. To stipulate by definition that the language tests are measuring language ability directly.
2. To consider language tests to be assessing language use similar to that in real life.
3. To consider language tests as authentic on the basis of face validity or face appeal.

Doye (1991) states that the postulation of authenticity has its limits and a complete congruence of a test situation and real-life situation is impossible. He views a language test a social event that has—as one of its characteristics—the intention to examine the competence of language learners. According to Doye, the purpose is to find out whether the learner is capable of performing a language task, which distinguishes it from the performance of this task outside of the test situation.

Does the issue of authenticity change somehow in reference to alternative assessment? Messick (1996) might have the answer in his argument for authenticity, ". . . in the case of language testing, the assessment should include authentic and direct samples of communicative behaviors of listening, speaking, reading and writing of the language being learnt. Ideally, the move from learning exercises to test exercises should be seamless." The last statement is a reiteration of what is documented in the literature elsewhere, that there ought to be hardly any difference between the type of exercises regularly done in the classroom and the type of test tasks. Messick also addresses what "authenticity" means in validity terms, and cautions for a threat to validity known as construct under-representation which can affect a test's authenticity (when the assessment is deficient, the test too narrow, failing to include important dimensions or facets of focal constructs).

Van Lier (1991) sheds more light on what happens inside the classroom and discusses the notion of the meaning of authenticity in general, and identifies five types of authenticity: (1) authenticity of origin (production or creation, like "Is this painting authentic?"), (2) authenticity of context (language to fit its context), (3) authenticity of purpose (of representation or reproduction, when the presenter is not the creator, e.g., the teacher is not the creator of a newspaper report; together the second and third types can be called pragmatic authenticity), (4) pedagogic authenticity (not denying that it is pedagogically authentic, e.g., this is a lesson and you are the students),and (5) existential authenticity.

Existential authenticity is considered by Van Lier to be the most important of all: "it is the question of intellectual interest in, moral commitment to and emotional involvement in the work at hand." He concludes in light of existential authenticity that "language made up for the occasion and activities invented for the classroom, can be authentic in far more valid and meaningful ways than some article clipped from the newspaper, a videotaped conversation, or a learner-learner exchange about "what I did last weekend." The issue of "meaningful" rather than "authentic," tying into practicality of testing is addressed here. Even though a newspaper supposedly features authentic language, the usability of some articles is nonexistent, but maintained to be "authentic" by some people, and often applied "prescriptively" as an "authentic" text/test item which as such might be useless. Thus, we need to keep in mind the overall usefulness (meaningful rather than authentic) of alternative assessments, as it is applied to traditional tests as well.

Regarding test practicality we think of feasibility or usability of a test. Haggstrom (1994) states, regarding oral classroom testing, "From the perspective of the classroom teacher, we are also concerned that our tests allow us to measure students' progress and mastery of specific course material, and in the interest of fairness we want tests that we can score with accuracy and that are also feasible in terms of the amount of time they take to administer and grade." Practicality and feasibility appear relevant to alternative assessment as well as to standardized tests.

To keep the balance, we need to take into consideration the last of the six test qualities: Interactiveness. This quality refers to the relationship between input and expected responses; topical knowledge; affective schemata; and metacognitive strategies, all leading to what I have coined the "unicycle" image for foreign language teachers and learners with reference to alternative assessment.

Unicycle of Alternative Assessment

Keeping the reality of the classroom in mind, Van Patten (1997) states that learners and teachers can be bombarded with a wealth of information from multifaceted sources. He questions: "What impact do standardized tests have on what teachers do?" It might be appropriate to ask now: "What impact does alternative assessment have on what teachers and learners do?"

With traditional tests and quizzes, teachers impose the means of assessment and retain control of the criteria. In the alternative assessment classroom, the means and criteria are often a collaborative effort and a more complete picture of the learners' ability, effort and, through it, progress can be obtained. Since alternative assessment provides assessment from various sources which are included in the process rather than any single method of assessment, learners can show what they can integrate and produce in the target language rather than what they can recall and reproduce. The learners can demonstrate how and why some learning experiences are important. Naturally this involves an additional type of commitment from the teachers other than preparing learners for end of course standardized tests. Teachers and learners involved in programs of intensive foreign language studies thus face multifaceted tasks.

As an example, at the DLIFLC, classes have a maximum of 10 learners and receive between six and seven hours of foreign language instruction five days a week. A language instruction team consists of six teachers, and one military linguist responsible for teaching 30 learners. All learners are adults, most of them serving in the different branches of the armed forces. A foreign language program ranges from 25 weeks (category 1 language, such as French or Spanish) to 63 weeks (category 4 language, such as Arabic or Chinese) in duration.

Teachers have a large number of tests for learners: homework, quizzes, interim exams, preparation for the end of program Final Learning Objectives proficiency test battery (the Defense Language Proficiency Test IV (DLPT IV) Reading and Listening (multiple choice tests) and Oral Proficiency Interview) as well as Final Learning Objectives performance test battery (job-task, production type tests). Apart from the interim classroom tests, the final test batteries are administered at the end of the training program and add up to about 15 hours of test time over several weeks.

In light of this kind of language learning and teaching situation, how can we conceptualize the complementation of standardized tests with alternative measures, benefiting both learners and teachers so "they are partners in developing shared knowledge" (Van Lier, 1997)? For starters, a helpful tool extended to learners at the beginning of their foreign language study at the DLIFLC is training in learning styles (the way individuals acquire, retain, and retrieve information) and learning strategies (a cognitive, meta-cognitive, social, and affective action plan used by a learner to learn). Considering the various test taker characteristics (age, foreign language aptitude, socio-psychological factors, personality, cognitive style, ethnolinguistic factors, and multilingual ability), learners need to be reflective about their language learning processes. In other words, a consciousness-raising needs to take place.

The importance of reflective processes is reported in Nunan (1996) in his findings about learning strategy training in the classroom in which he states that systematic provision of opportunities for learners to reflect on the learning process did lead to greater sensitivity to the learning process over time. Learners who engaged in tasks focusing on learning processes as well as language content developed skills for identifying what they wanted to learn and how they wanted to learn. Nunan's study supported the idea that language classrooms should have a dual focus, not only on teaching language content but also on developing learning processes as well. It is my belief that applications of some forms of alternative assessment would automatically incorporate the dual focus of classrooms as mentioned by Nunan.

Thinking about this concept and what "vehicle" would correspond to alternative assessment, test usefulness, and learner autonomy, I came up with the analogy of a bicycle. However, rather than picture a bicycle which can carry two people (with one doing all the work and the other riding along!) visualize a "unicycle" of alternative assessment and the autonomous foreign language learner. Webster's definition of a unicycle is "a vehicle that has a single wheel and is propelled usually by pedals or applied draft." The operator is called a unicyclist.

The figure below shows the components and connections, as well as the teacher's supporting role, as important as nuts and bolts which hold the framework together. Since the learner is the operator in the "driver's seat," balance is the ultimate goal, and continuous progress is documented by the "tire" of alternative assessment, leaving imprints along the way. The pedals propel the learner into foreign language (the interaction) to make the wheel turn, supported by the six spokes of the qualities of test usefulness. Hypothetically, if some of the spokes are missing, the result would be an "out of balance cyclist." Unless the learner is aware, autonomous and balanced, he/she won't get anywhere on the "alternative unicycle." Progress can be documented by the learner himself, or peers might volunteer their observations, and based on objectives, the learner finds out what he/she knows or can do. According to the process shown in the Figure, there is an exchange of shared knowledge. Even though the learner is sitting in the "driver's seat," the teacher him/herself is approaching and guiding each individual in a different manner. The totality of the vehicle is still "driven" by standardized tests which will ultimately indicate how well the learner is able to circumlocute obstacles put in his/her way, avoid "potholes" and demonstrate mastery of foreign language skills. Since not all "unicyclists" are alike, the question then is: what kind of materials would be useful to assess the "free-wheeling" progress?

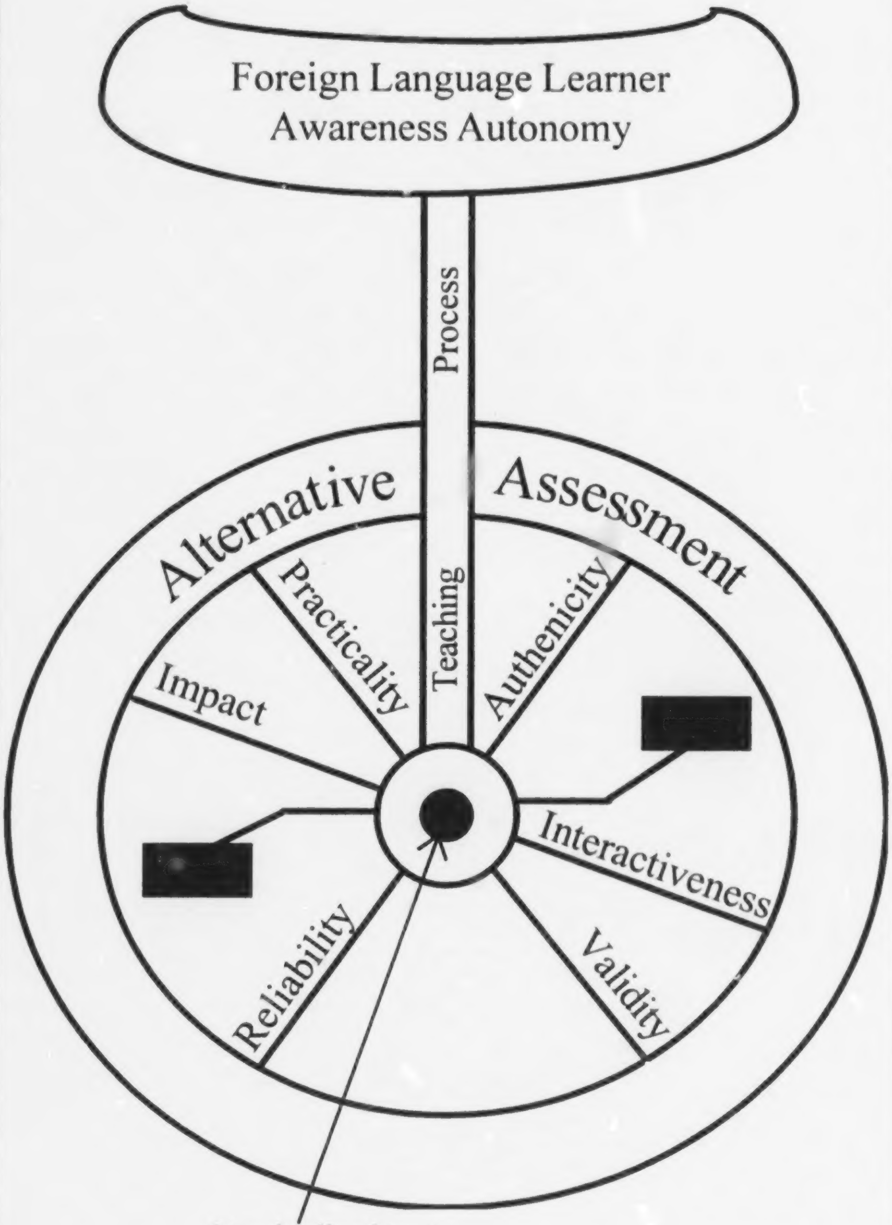
Foreign Language Learner
Awareness Autonomy
Process
Alternative
Assessment
Practicality
Teaching
Authenicity
Impact
Interactiveness
Reliability
Validity
Standardized tests

Figure
The "Unicycle" Image of Alternative Assessment

Materials

At this point we might remember the question posed earlier: "How useful is the information provided by the test for its intended purpose?" The information coming from alternative assessment is going to provide us with progress measures, compiled collaboratively by teachers and learners, having instructional relevance, promoting learner motivation and contributing to classroom change. With the concept of alternative assessment to be the "tire" of the "unicycle" the question could be: How do we know what the various "tread" marks mean? Out of many possibilities (as documented in the previous pages) and to try and keep it simple, I think two particular imprints would provide teachers and learners with the opportunity to determine the meaning of the "treads" left on the road to mastering foreign language skills: self-assessment and portfolio assessment.

What are some choices for self-directed evaluation in the foreign language classroom? Adapting Oscarson, I would find the following materials useful:

1. Progress cards and other record keeping devices. A series of short-term functional goals is defined and grouped together in graded blocks at various difficulty levels. Learner and teacher, in each of their columns, tick off the activity when the learner is sure he/she can perform it/has mastered it.

2. Questionnaires, checklists, and rating scales. The learner can circle or tick off descriptive rating scales which are aimed at overall assessment of perceived ability levels. There is a definite place for self-assessment in general proficiency testing.

3. Diaries. Even though the term diaries is most frequently used, I found out my learners would have preferred it to be called "a language learning notebook," to do away with the connotation of confidentiality associated with the word "diary." These language diary/notebooks can be used to aid teachers monitor progress, as well as provide the learner with the opportunity to ask for clarifications about structures after reflecting on, or experiencing difficulties with the target language. The teacher and learners would decide how to make use of a diary/notebook. The purpose of guidelines for any new assessment in the classroom needs to be made clear by the teacher prior to implementation.

4. Informal self-assessment. This can amount to having a distinct feeling of not quite having understood the teaching point explained by the teacher, to being reduced to a state of frustration when

communication is breaking down. Awareness of these feelings creates informal self-assessments.

5. Video and Audio Cassettes. Learners are video-recorded, doing short role-plays at regular intervals and can view their scenes and assess their progress over a period of time. Audio cassettes can supply learners with conversational practice in pairs, and compare recordings with earlier ones and make estimates of their progress. These techniques are extremely useful, but, unfortunately not always put into practice for self-assessment benefits. (The Appendix shows Oscarson's illustration of a self-assessment questionnaire.)

Triangulation of data described by Huerta-Macias (1995) also might be applied to alternative assessment in foreign language learning. A possibility could be the combination of input by the learner, his/her primary teacher and a team leader. A portfolio of the learner's written work samples could be put together, like quizzes, letters, goal cards, an audio tape of the learner engaged in a conversation, or self-evaluation sheets. The teacher could add his/her own observations documented in a *teacher's journal*, as well as events demonstrating classroom target language proficiency.

Adapted from McNamara (1995) the following three self-assessment activities promise additional benefits for use in the foreign language classroom:

- **Keeping a daily language learning log.** This serves as a record of what the learner did, how he/she did it, what worked and what did not work. The log would provide a clear idea of how the learner spends his/her time. Difficulties encountered with language features could be recorded, successes (or failures) of particular learning strategies and class interactions. For each entry the date would be recorded, the activity, the amount of time engaged in the use of the target language and a description and an analysis of the target language use.
- **Writing letters to the teacher.** For foreign language learning this would fall into the diary/notebook category. In ESL, it is practiced at the beginning and end of the semester. Learners determine their needs, set priorities

and write this to the teacher. It accomplishes the shift of responsibility of learning from teacher to learner. As a writing sample it is a diagnostic tool as well. For foreign language classrooms it could be adapted to the target language situation.

- **Preparing a target language portfolio.** How does this work, what does it mean?

Bailey (1998) describes Maricel Santos' implementation of portfolio assessment in her English classes for undergraduate learners at a Japanese university. I like Maricel Santos' description of portfolio use in. It seems to me that the setup she uses would work well in the context of other foreign language learning situations. Santos has the portfolio divided into four sections:

1. An introductory section with an overview of the contents as well as a reflective essay.
2. An academic section to demonstrate the learner's improvement or achievement in the major skill areas (listening, reading, speaking and writing).
3. A personal section which includes the learner's journals, quizzes, score reports, photographs, anything related to individual interests and achievements in the target language.
4. An assessment section which includes self-evaluations, peer evaluations and teacher assessment.

Santos stresses the importance of laying groundwork when trying to implement an innovation in assessment. Her learners had to be prepared for learning how to be reflective. Bailey (1998) quotes Santos: "If I could improve one area in my portfolio approach, I would focus more on getting the learners to engage in reflective activities as part of a weekly practice of class activities." Assuming this reflective practice is conducted, I anticipate the overall portfolio work to provide both foreign language learners and teachers with various benefits.

Benefits of Portfolios in Alternative Assessment

If you are a learner, alternative assessment provides the following benefits for you.

- Documents your own language development, weaknesses and strengths.
- Clarifies, confirms, and checks comprehension of language structures in a nonthreatening way.
- Gives you a chance to apply target language structures on topics of *your choice*.
- Gives you an opportunity to influence how and what you learn and influence the assessment process.
- Records your progress and thus increases your self-confidence in learning the target language.
- Reflects process and product.
- Allows you to determine personal goals and interests and offers a concrete way to value your own work and yourself as a learner.

If you are a teacher, alternative assessment provides the following benefits for you:

- Promotes learner-instructor interaction and increases mutual understanding.
- Enables you to get an insight in affective and personal factors that influence interaction in the language learning process.
- Shows you what motivates the learner.
- Allows you to become aware of multiple meanings in the target language.
- Provides you with a longitudinal opportunity for awareness of and consideration for the learner's language development, weaknesses and strengths, allowing for pertinent feedback.
- Helps you see your role in a learner-centered classroom and how it affects your decision-making process.
- Develops your perceptual knowledge and gives you practical wisdom.
- Provides you with feedback about your own teaching and more directly connect your actions in the classroom to learners' learning.

Regarding the two "treads" of self-assessment and portfolio assessment on the "tire of the unicycle" of alternative assessment, it seems obvious that they would provide useful information. I will reiterate this point by looking at the six qualities of test usefulness again, the "spokes" which provide the pertinent structure in the frame.

Reliability (accuracy of a test in measuring consistently what it is supposed to measure). In short, the measurement is not reliable if the "tread marks" become out of control "skid marks." In other words, reliability can be assured when multiple tasks are designed that lead to the same outcome; when specific anchor pairs or performance behaviors are formed; and when raters are monitored periodically to ensure that criteria and standards are used in a consistent manner (Huarta-Macia, 1995).

Validity (degree to which a test measures what it is designed to measure). When the alternative assessment "works" for teacher and learner, then it is valid.

Authenticity (characteristics of test task). It is an assessment of the language ability directly. Contrary to some other forms of assessment, the learner is not asked to suddenly use the "unicycle" as a "mountain bike" to receive a certain score, but rather demonstrate his/her "real life" practice of balancing the wheel on his/her road to the finish line. Therefore, it seems that alternative assessment has face appeal as well.

Interactiveness (topical knowledge, affective schemata and metacognitive strategies, the relationship between input and expected responses). With alternative assessment, the learner engages framework of knowledge and skills, continuously assessing his/her thinking and doing. There is a definite interaction between tire "skid marks" and foreign language learning experiences or "tread marks" and self-evaluative or teacher feedback.

Impact (how the test affects processes of learning and instruction, e.g., washback). It seems that the possibility for beneficial washback is relatively high, as there would be "no seam" (Messick) between classroom activities and alternative assessment.

Practicality (feasibility or usability of a test in a situation for which it is intended). I believe this quality of test usefulness regarding alternative assessment speaks for itself.

We are talking about an autonomous "foreign language learner unicyclist" who has a goal, a finish line to be reached. Each individual progresses at his or her own pace, achieves balance and ultimately cycles through the foreign language assessment finish line. How this is done depends on the individual, his/her learning styles and strategies, and the interactions with the teacher. Alternative assessment allows for these differences: some learners "sail through" with upright back, perfect form, while balancing the wheel; others are hunched over in a tremendous effort to stay balanced, and yes, a little wobbly, but they too achieve their goal. The practice of this new skill will ultimately become internalized and the learner will be able to demonstrate further down the road that the process has become "automatic," reminding us of the well-known "Look ma, no hands!" (i.e., acquisition).

Considerations

On the road to proficiency building, alternative assessment would provide excellent documentation of progress in the foreign language over time. In addition, the insights derived from reflecting on foreign language learning might indirectly benefit the end of program standardized tests, thus it would be hard to deny the overall usefulness of alternative assessment.

A note of caution: this article is not intended to be viewed as a specific alternative assessment teacher manual. One size doesn't fit all in this case. How each teacher sets up the self-assessment and portfolio work would depend on the foreign language, the nature of the needs of the learners, and the personality of the teacher. It is considered a collaborative effort, but achieved on an individual basis. To give an example, languages with different orthography might dedicate a larger portion of the portfolio to the difficulty of the writing system involved; on the other hand, foreign !anguages that do not have this component might be able to include more of another skill.

Regarding the scoring or qualitative evaluation of portfolios, I agree with Gottlieb (1995) that it is extremely important that teachers have extensive professional development to read acceptable levels of reliability for portfolio assessment. Furthermore, scoring procedures would require the setup of particular protocols or rating scales. Hamp-Lyons's (1997) findings from her framework for writing portfolios covering claims for portfolios, teacher strategies, writer strategies, and rater strategies, might aid others to compile similar components for different skills.

Last, but not least, in reference to Shohamy's (1995) Psychometric Properties of Alternative Assessment, I would concur that there is a need for on-going research on psychometric features of alternative assessment as part of the development of alternative assessment procedures.

Summary

In this article I have explored the usefulness of alternative assessment, as well as the sub-topics of self-assessment, portfolios and diaries, video and peer observations/assessment, washback, and concerns about alternative assessment. I came up with the image of a "Unicycle" to depict the interactions involved in the alternative assessment process. How the "unicycling" is done would depend on the academic environment and the foreign language. By taking a closer look at the use of self-assessment and portfolios, I have tried to show their relevance to the six qualities of test usefulness and the value and benefits of incorporating some measures of alternative assessment in the foreign language classroom. Alternative assessment would contribute to classroom change, as teachers and learners would work collaboratively and use different criteria for judging merit.

In short, using these complementary assessment measures, we get a more complete picture of our learners' abilities, progress and effort, which, in a learner-centered classroom, is what we are after, isn't it? Therefore, it is my hope that teachers realize extra efforts on their part and on the part of the learners pay off when they apply the "art of unicycling."

At the 20th Language Testing Research Colloquium, Ray T. Clifford (1998) in his plenary speech, addressed the fact that there are pressures on language teaching and testing because of market and budgetary forces. Among others, he identified the need for tests that require real world use of language and the need to validate the skills of individuals with high levels of language competence; reductions in testing time and a push for "just in time" assessment.

Regarding Clifford's address for the need for tests that require real world use of the language, I hope this article will be an inspiration for all who stood by the roadside watching "unicyclists" go by, to join in and "hop on the wheel of alternative assessment to cycle into the real world and use that road for its intended purpose." In other words, instead of reinventing the wheel, let's consider the "usefulness" of a "tire change": implementation of alternative assessment in foreign language learning and teaching.

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Appendix

Self-Assessment Questionnaire
Source: Oscarson

1.In the last few lessons (days, weeks) we/I have studied/practiced/ worked on:

a.	b.
c.	d.
e.	f.

Fill in the empty spaces with topics and areas of study that are relevant in your case, for example:
a. pronunciation of words
b. how to greet people
c. questions with present tense

2. How well do you master the above topics in your own estimate?
Not at all—to some extent—fairly well—very well
a.
b.
c.

3. I judge my weak points to be the following:

Follow-up
Discuss your assessment and your points of view with a fellow student or in a small group, or with your teacher. Try to find out whether others think you tend to overestimate or underestimate your ability and acquired skills and then decide whether you ought to reconsider and readjust your "yardstick." Compare your subjective impressions with other criteria such as test scores, your teacher's evaluation, and estimates by your fellow students.

Author

MARGARET VAN DAALEN. Associate Professor, Test Development and Standards Division, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944. Interests: language testing, foreign language teacher training, language acquisition studies.

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Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages

James E. McDermott
Middle East School I

This article discusses theoretical and practical issues connected with implicit and explicit learning of languages. Although it is not exhaustive, it does provide enough information and references to be a starting point for those who wish to inquire further into this subject. The article defines explicit knowledge as that which can be expressed in the form of rules or definitions, while implicit knowledge is that which can be inferred to exist because of observed performance, but cannot clearly be described. The article also sorts through the views of many authors who define their terms differently from each other and from the definitions given above. It then offers a hypothesis as to why explicit learning can lead to implicit knowledge. Finally, it offers a few suggestions on how to apply some of the theories discussed within the context of DLIFLC's mission. While the paper essentially supports explicit learning, it recognizes that no mental process can be incontrovertibly proven to be wholly explicit or implicit.

Introduction and Definitions

The implicit versus explicit dichotomy has become a matter of interest and controversy in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in recent years and underlies some of the more visible controversies in this field (Bialystok, 1994). One of the major problems in discussing the dichotomy is sorting through the definitions. As Spada (1997, p. 73) aptly stated: "The difficulty is that in some instances different terms have been used to express the same meaning and in others, the same term has been used to express different meanings." Many authors feel that explicit, conscious, and controlled are synonymous and likewise their opposites implicit, unconscious, and automatic are synonymous. Bialystok (1994) along with Bental and Dickens (1994) separate these concepts and hold that explicit refers to something that is clearly expressed. (See Appendix for other definitions of some authors who have delved into this subject.)

For our purposes, we define explicit knowledge of language as knowledge that can be expressed in the form of rules or definitions, while implicit knowledge of language as knowledge that can be inferred because of observed performance but cannot be clearly described. With these definitions there is no real argument that these two types of knowledge exist; however, if we were to adopt the definitions used by Winter and Reber (1994), Berry (1994), McLaren, Green, & Mackintosh (1994), and apparently followed by Krashen (1994) in which implicit, unconscious, and automatic are taken to mean the same thing, not only would there be controversy, but also a good measure of confusion.

In addition to the implicit/explicit knowledge dichotomy, the distinction between implicit and explicit learning are important. Once again, many authors consider implicit learning to be unconscious learning. This article will argue that learning is implicit only in the sense that after a learner has learned something, he may not remember or be able to state how he learned it, but learning is implied because he has the knowledge or ability in question. Admittedly this definition assumes that we have learned what we know. Nativists like Chomsky would not accept this assumption; yet, just as geometry starts with axioms, we are starting with this assumption. Regrettably, it is much harder to obtain agreement on the assumptions in the field of SLA than in geometry. If the above definition of implicit learning were accepted, no one would deny the existence of this construct. However, since many claim that implicit learning is unconscious learning the issue becomes controversial. Of course, defining implicit and explicit, so as to remove controversy from these terms, does not end the controversy in SLA; it simply shifts it over to the conscious/unconscious poles.

Consciousness and Unconsciousness In Learning

Arthur S. Reber (Winter & Reber, 1994) claimed that learning can take place unconsciously and has long been establishing this claim through Miniature Artificial Grammar studies. These studies use a series of letters in patterns following an elaborate system of rules. After exposure to correct patterns without explicit instruction, subjects are then exposed to a mixture of correct and incorrect patterns, and are able to identify correct and incorrect patterns at a better than chance percentage. Many scholars including Richard Schmidt (1994) have questioned their conclusions and Reber and Winter themselves admit "...there is no methodology that can conclusively and unambiguously demonstrate that a particular percept or mental event is either wholly conscious or wholly unconscious" (1994 p. 130). Though the learning demonstrated by Reber's experiments may demonstrate a lack of intentionality, it certainly does not demonstrate a lack of attention. The participants definitely had to pay attention to the prompts in order for any learning to take place. Winter and Reber themselves also point this out: "...it is not assumed [to be] totally in an incidental manner; the process is conceived as being a by-product of the application of attention to relevant rule-governed structures in the environment..." (1994, p. 117).

Others like Berry (1994) used another line of research for evidence of unconscious learning involving problem solving that subjects successfully performed without being able to explicitly state procedures. Once again, Reber's admission, stated above, applies. It could be that Berry was comparing estimation to calculation rather than unconscious to conscious learning. Perhaps a better explanation for what appears to some to be unconscious learning is a human ability to make inferences based on what they explicitly or implicitly know. Problem solving that appears to be the result of unconscious learning could simply be rapid inferring from implicit or explicit knowledge. These inferences (intuition perhaps?) could be made at such high speed that they appear to come from unconscious learning or knowledge.

Some scholars have looked to animal learning as a way to validate unconscious learning in humans. The line of reasoning is that animals learn unconsciously and therefore humans also must have this avenue of learning open to them, in addition to conscious learning. Although animals do not have metacognitive abilities, they certainly do attend to what they learn.

Using parallels to animal learning to support humans unconsciously learning language is seriously flawed. In this regard, consider that animal researchers McLaren, Green, & Mackintosh (1994) and Bentall and Dickens (1994) agree that animals have a single system of learning and that their system parallels what is called implicit learning in humans. If that is the case, then those who believe that the explicit system is useless for language learning need to explain why animals do not communicate in a more sophisticated way than humans do. Some of the animal communication systems like bees, whales, and crows are quite remarkable, yet they are obviously very primitive compared to human language. Even if animals learn to communicate without metacognitive skills, they do not learn without attentiveness. This previous statement would be hard to prove with regard to bees and whales, but it has been demonstrated with birds: those that are removed from their species and are allowed to listen to other bird songs will imitate the other songs. This phenomenon in birds indicates that attention is a factor in their learning along with the inherited traits that enable them to sing.

Additionally, McLaren, Green and Mackintosh (1994) and Bentall and Dickens (1994) say that to call explicit learning conscious and implicit subconscious is an oversimplification. These researchers mention that animals show dissociations which have been used by cognitive scientists, when occurring in humans, to substantiate two systems of learning. As mentioned above, there is a consensus that animals have only one system of learning. Therefore, if the assumption that animals have only one system of learning is true, and animals show dissociations, then dissociations in humans do not prove two systems of learning.

Of course, of more interest and relevance to this paper is the role of implicit/explicit systems in the learning of human languages. Krashen continues to claim that languages are learned implicitly. His Acquisition-Learning hypothesis (1994) states:

> We have two independent means of developing another language: language acquisition is a subconscious process that results in linguistic knowledge that is subconsciously stored in the brain (tacit knowledge). Language learning is a conscious process that results in "knowing about" language. Language acquisition is "incidental" (as contrasted with intentional) and "implicit" (as contrasted with explicit learning), while language learning is intentional and explicit. (p. 45)

Krashen supports his hypothesis by citing Chomsky's (1975) view that the system is too complex to be consciously learned. He also says that there are far too many words to learn one at a time. He estimates that educated native speakers know as many as 110,000 words and says that even a figure of 39,000 words, estimated by Lorge and Chall (1963), would be far too great a number to learn one at a time. Of course no would claim that an L1 learner has made 39,000 trips to the dictionary, but this does not necessarily mean that all these words were learned unconsciously. It is possible that these words were learned by attending to contextual clues. Current research methods are inadequate to give us a definitive answer on the role of consciousness in L1 learning.

Though research does not give us definitive answers, we could hypothesize that there was a certain measure of intentionality, and that the process of adding words became so routine that it was not memorable. Many of us remember when we learned to ride a bike because it was a major and unique achievement. Understanding and eventually speaking our first word was probably just as much a major achievement, but it was not unique and it occurred before our earliest recollections. And, although it was a major achievement, we eventually started learning several words a day. This process of learning became so routine that even though requiring effort (Kirsner, 1994, calculated that we may use high frequency words up to as much as a million times by the time we reach adulthood) it certainly would not be memorable simply because of the routine nature of the task. We can call this implicit learning in the sense that we can't explain or state how we learned because we do not remember.

Parallel to the number of vocabulary items to be learned is the complexity of the grammatical system. Here, too, we cannot prove conscious or unconscious learning, but even if we were to assume that L1 is unconsciously acquired, we can not assume the L2 is learned in the same way.

Research methodology in SLA does not lend itself to final incontrovertible conclusions. After a study is completed, someone else is always able to say, "yes, but...". That said, many studies seem to favor explicit learning. Nina Spada (1997) reviewed 30 studies investigating the benefits of different types of language instruction. (It must be noted that none of the studies cited by Krashen (1994, pp. 54-55) in support of his hypotheses made it into Spada's review.) Spada's conclusions in general favor explicit forms of intervention or combinations of explicit and implicit instruction. Two studies which are too recent to be covered in Spada's review favor some form of explicit teaching (Watanabe, 1997, and Zimmerman, 1997). This doesn't mean that implicit instruction (see below for definitions of explicit and implicit teaching) should be ignored. As N. Ellis (1995, p. 136) pointed out "...implicit and explicit modes of operation interact in interesting ways ... [and] demonstrate that a blend of explicit instruction and implicit learning can be superior to either just explicit instruction and implicit learning alone" (Spada, 1997, p. 82). At this point it would be appropriate to provide definitions for implicit and explicit teaching.

Explicit and Implicit Teaching

Once again our definition of implicit learning, as learning that the learner is unable to express or remember how he learned, does not match how all the referenced authors view it. Implicit teaching, on the other hand, can probably be defined in a way that would be acceptable to all. Implicit teaching is not or at least should not be the opposite of implicit learning. The teacher should know what he is doing and why, and he should remember what he did so that he can either repeat or avoid it the next time. Implicit teaching is simply providing opportunities for language use without any attention to form. Explicit teaching which includes error correction is teaching that overtly points out some feature of the language. Probably no teaching is purely implicit or explicit and, as N. Ellis pointed out, a mixture of the two is probably the most profitable. Furthermore, we should not assume that implicit teaching brings about implicit learning. O'Malley and Chamot (1994) discovered that good language learners have a high level of metacognitive ability, meaning that they are more skilled than poorer learners at picking learning strategies that are appropriate to the task or stage of instruction. They also pointed out that good learners pay attention to form. So even if we are teaching in an implicit way, our better learners are learning in an explicit manner.

"Interface" Between Implicit and Explicit Systems

Krashen (1994) claims there is no transfer between the two systems. R. Ellis (1994) and others allow for some transfer from explicit to implicit knowledge and Bialystok (1994) holds that transfer from implicit to explicit knowledge is important for growth.

In order to progress with the discussion of the interface, some additional terms need to be defined. We have for the most part kept the terms implicit, unconscious, automatic, and procedural separate although some mixing of the concepts was unavoidable when discussing the views of those who hold them to be synonymous. For this part of the discussion we will briefly set aside implicit (unexpressed) knowledge and unconscious knowledge and think in terms of controlled versus automatic and declarative versus procedural knowledge. The controlled/automatic distinction in language follows the opaque/transparent analogy. When the interlocutor is purposefully attending to language features, the language is opaque and he is using controlled processing. When the interlocutor is focused on the meaning, and is not hindered by any deficiencies in his L1, the language is transparent and he is using automatic processing. Declarative knowledge is "knowledge about" while procedural knowledge is ability to perform.

Contrary to folk wisdom, explicit knowledge does not have to be only controlled and declarative. It can also work in the automatic and procedural realm (R. Ellis, 1994, p 86). Now that some definitions have been given, we return to the interface between the two systems.

Whatever our view of the issues discussed, all should agree that procedural knowledge and automatic processing are congruent with the goals of communicative language teaching. Declarative knowledge and controlled processing do not necessarily hinder these.

A brief hypothesis of how we arrive at procedural knowledge and automatic processing on the road to acquisition along with a possible reason for shifts from explicit to implicit knowledge will now be provided. The hypothesis will be stated in a linear fashion which at the outset makes it inadequate as a complete description of the process, since any linear description of a complex interplay of factors will be an oversimplification. Yet, removing a small part of the puzzle and looking at it in simplified form can be helpful, assuming we realize it will eventually have to find its way back into the more complex system. The hypothesis, which is somewhat comparable to Tharp and Gallimore's (1988, p. 35) description of the four stages of moving through the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), is as follows:

1. Incomprehensible input or output (R. Ellis, 1994). For learning to take place, something must occur to make the learner aware he needs knowledge. This could either be in the form of language in the environment he does not understand or in the form of an inability to communicate.

2. The learner gains the needed knowledge. This is the best case scenario; it should occur if step one occurred within the ZPD and if scaffolding is available (van Lier, 1996; Lantolf, 1994, for discussion). If step two does not work, then go back to step one with a different feature. The knowledge in question could be declarative or procedural or both.

3. If the knowledge gained in step one was declarative knowledge, if applicable, it may become procedural knowledge through practice.

4. Repeated practice makes procedural knowledge more and more automatic.

5. If there is sufficient practice after the knowledge is automated, it becomes permanently acquired (Pienemann & Hakansson, 1996).

6. Once acquired, knowledge can become routine to the extent it becomes transparent and the learner forgets he learned it or how he learned it. At this stage the knowledge would be called implicit.

Perhaps this "interface" is not really an interface at all between two separate systems, but rather a single unified system of knowledge that at times is explicit through various degrees of awareness and at other times through routinization becomes implicit. Implicit knowledge can, with a relatively small amount of effort, be made explicit. If the above hypothesis is true, it will take a lot of practice before explicit knowledge to moves into the implicit realm.

As stated, this is an oversimplification and only traces one bit of knowledge through a possible sequence in a very complicated system of learning in which particular bits of information could be moving forward in the chain or backsliding. Many discreet points can be, therefore, moving simultaneously backward or forward at different points along the continuum described in the hypothesis. It is further complicated by an ever changing linguistic environment in which these processes take place.

The evidence provided for the insubstantiality of the claim of unconscious learning certainly will not end the controversy. Because as Reber and Winter (1994) admit, while we cannot wholly prove unconscious learning, neither can we wholly disprove it. Yet enough has been mentioned to support the role of explicit teaching and learning to make it obvious that a teacher should be cautious about trying to eliminate explicitness from the learning environment.

Suggestions for the DLIFLC Mission

One may be tempted to comment after reading all of the above, "What does this mean for the teacher in the classroom at DLIFLC?" What follows is an attempt to answer this question.

First of all, the teacher should not feel he has betrayed the Communicative Approach when he explains grammar. He should, however, ensure that the explanation is aimed at improved communication. The question to be asked is: "Will this explanation make the student more competent or simply more knowledgeable?" The grammar explanations should also be kept short and should answer a felt need on the student's part. Of course, it should not be assumed that the grammatical point was learned simply because it was explained. Explanations should be followed by activities that call for the use of the grammatical feature. Perhaps "one part explanation to ten parts practice" would be a good formula.

There is some evidence that it is actually better to precede the explicit instruction with opportunities to use the language feature using the garden path technique (Tomasello & Heron, 1988 & 1989, cited in Spada, 1997) to enable the students to realize their need for the explicit information. In some cases, it is wiser to refer students to the appropriate pages of a clearly written grammar book than to use class time for an extended grammar discussion.

Second, it is okay to drill. Funke (1997) has discussed how the perception of the language learning drill has changed over the years. The main consideration is that language used for drilling should, for the most part, be such that it could be used in a communicative context. However, this writer even encourages his students to run through the conjugation of new verbs when they learn them (I studied, you studied, we studied, he studied, etc.). There is no way this could be considered a communicative task. However, it could be likened to a pianist starting the day playing his scales and arpeggios before playing a sonata. A student who is just learning conjugations would do well to do his warm ups regularly in preparation for performing his communicative masterpieces.

How much drilling should take place in the classroom? That is the teacher's call. Be aware that too little can leave the student ill equipped for communicative tasks, and too much can kill motivation for learning. It is best to sprinkle the drills throughout the program of instruction rather having a specified drill hour. Drills should not be viewed as the "be all and end all" of language teaching. However, this writer does encourage the use of drills as appropriate to prepare students for communication.

Third, in addition to drilling there is a wide range of exercises that can be used for explicit learning of a particular language feature. R. Ellis (1998) provides a couple of examples, the first of which controls the student response, and the second provides the student with an opportunity to use the target feature in a more creative way.

A. Text manipulation

Fill in the blanks in these sentences.

1. Mr. Short was born _____ 1944 ____ a Tuesday _____ May _____ two o'clock ____ the morning.
2. Mr. Long was born _____ 1955 _____ a Saturday ____ November ____ five o'clock ____ the afternoon. [etc.]

B. Text creation

1. Find three people who know
- the year they were born
- the day they were born
- the time of day they were born

2. Complete this table about the three people.

	Name	Year	Day	Time
a.				
b.				
c.				

3. Now tell the class about the three people you talked to.
(R. Ellis, 1998. p. 50).

Fourth, it is okay to correct student errors, though the teacher should use judgment and tact when doing so. He should also know his individual students, since some students are more receptive to error correction than others. One technique that avoids embarrassment is to transcribe selected student utterances on the board while they are doing speaking practice in groups or pairs. After the group session is over, let the students analyze the utterances on the board and make suggestions for more accurate communication. Most will not know who made the errors and even the student himself may not realize his utterances are on the board. Since too much error correction can be frustrating for both the student and instructor and since there is some evidence that correcting utterances with only a single error seems to yield the best results (Long, 1996), it would be best to pick language samples that are almost right for error correction.

Certain aspects of the DLIFLC's mission lend themselves very well to error correction and subsequent explicit instruction and learning. Performance Final Learning Objectives (FLOs) related to transcription and translation call for explicit knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Student errors while performing these activities provide opportunities for the teacher to point out how a specific grammar rule can help the student accomplish a more accurate transcript or translation.

Fifth, reading and listening tasks can lend themselves to explicit learning. Texts can be selected (authentic texts are preferable, but contrived ones may be necessary at the beginning of a program) to illustrate particular features of the language. Here, explicit instruction can be blended with listening or reading to gain information. The task can parallel the Performance FLO tasks of listening and summarizing or answering questions or it can be more communicative as in listening as an interlocutor or listening/reading to gain information in preparation for an upcoming discussion. The explicit instruction in connection with the listening/reading task can be anticipated in the pre-listening/reading orientation. "You will hear a few discussions between parents and their children. In addition to answering the questions found on your worksheet, note the different ways conditional clauses are formed." It can also take place during listening or reading activities. The tape can be stopped when it is perceived that a lack of knowledge of a particular feature is preventing an accurate understanding of the text. A brief explanation and even a short drill can be inserted before returning to the text. Once the reading/listening is over, students can be asked to analyze particular language features. Focus on ones that will be useful to their future needs.

All of the above suggestions can be blended together in a communicative classroom. For the most part a block or period of instruction should not focus on one skill only. Listening, reading, speaking, writing, error correction, explicit explanations and drilling should—and can—be blended together to fulfill the instructional goals. Moving quickly from one aspect of the lesson to the next with smooth transitions can help keep the student focused and avoid daydreaming and boredom.

Explicitness also applies to other aspects of language learning. Often sociolinguistic and cultural differences need to be overtly pointed out to the students. Also with regard to vocabulary, there is no substitute for learning words. Bialystok and Hakuta (1994) eloquently state, "No matter what universal is posited in the human mind as the facilitating organ of language acquisition, there is no shortcut for learning words. They need to be studied, memorized, encountered, and reflected upon." (p. 210).

One final consideration; we should not assume the student's learning is going to follow our lesson plan. We often take a step by step building block approach to grammar. Most syllabi, even the more functional ones, have some sort of grammatical sequence. Yet according to Nunan (1998), the acquisition of features could be more like a garden with a variety flowers in different stages of growth than like building a wall one brick at a time. Control of grammatical features generally occurs over time and often not according to our plans, so teachers should be flexible and prepared to be have their explicit moments of instruction come at times when the students demonstrate readiness for them.

Summary

This article briefly discussed some of the issues involved in implicit/explicit knowledge, learning, and teaching. It defined and redefined some of the terms involved in the discussion. It claimed that learning is generally explicit, although it can be implicit in the sense that we can not always remember or describe how we learned something. It further gave a hypothesis briefly describing how explicit knowledge might become implicit. Finally, it provided a few ideas on how and when to use explicit instruction in the DLIFLC classroom.

While theoretical and practical considerations provided here are by no means intended to be exhaustive or prescriptive, they do provide some thoughts that may be useful to promote *a Dialog on Language Instruction.*

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Appendix

Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages

Definitions

Implicit	Explicit
Webster's (1984) 1. Implied or understood without being directly expressed 2. Contained in the nature of someone or something although not readily apparent	1. Expressed without vagueness or ambiguity 2. Clearly formulated or designed "a more conscious operation where the indiviual makes and tests hypothesis"
N. Ellis (1994, p. 1) "learning … [that] takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations."	
R. Ellis (1994, p.84-85) "...intuitive in the sense that the learner is unlikely to be aware of having learnt it and is probably unaware of its existence."	"...knowledge that is analyzed (in the sense that it exists independently of the actual instances of its use), abstract (in the sense that it takes the form of some underlying generalization of actual linguistic behavior), and explanatory (in that the logical base of the knowledge is understood independently of its appli-cation)... it is available to the learner as a conscious representation."
Winter and Reber (1994, p. 117) "learning... in an unconscious, non-reflective way... However, it is not assumed [to be] totally in an incidental manner; the	

Implicit	**Explicit**
process is conceived as being a by-product of the application of attention to relevant rule-governed structures in the environment;... inductive process that derives information... and represents these relationships in an abstract tacit form."	
Berry (1994, p. 148) "... is less accessible to consciousness and cannot be easily communicated or demonstrated..."	"...knowledge is accessible to consciousness and can be communicatied or demonstrated on demand... Learning itself may be explicit when deliberate strategies...are used"
McLaren, Green, & Mackintosh (1994, p. 314) "... it proceeds without our conscious awareness of what is being learnt."	"...we are conscious of what we are learning."
Bentall and Dickens (1994, p. 333) This type of learning takes place "when the learner apparently acquires abstract knowledge of the stimulus environment in the absence of the ability to articulate some kind of rule or description."	"...the learner is able to articulate some kind of rule or dexcription of the stimulus envionment."

Implicit	Explicit
Paradis (1994, p.394) “implicit competence refers to the knowledge inferred from individuals' performance, even though the individuals themselves are not aware of	
the nature of this knowledge (Lewandowsky, Dunn, & Kirsner, 1989). It is implicit in the sense that it is not overt.” Bialystok (1994, pp. 565, 566)	“...means that something has been stated exactly, leaving nothing to interpretation or implication. Explicit knowledge is knowledge that includes precise boundaries and is organized in known systems. Explicit knowledge may be conscious or not, and it may be accessed automatically or not. It is different from implicit knowledge in the clarity with which it is represented.”

Author

JAMES E. McDERMOTT, Military Language Instructor, Arabic Department, Middle East School I, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: Arabic, test development, tutored second language.

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Instructional Value of Voice in Elementary French

James E. Blackburn
Coastal Carolina University

This article proposes teaching three ways to suppress the agent: indefinite subject pronoun, pronominal verbs and the passive voice. Instead of showing beginning students how to avoid the passive, it recommends that they learn how to stress activity at the expense of agent. Nearly 40 contemporary or recent beginning and intermediate textbooks are evaluated for their approach to voice. Approaches to alerting beginners to the function of voice are proposed, dealing with message equivalence between voices, functions of auxiliaries and participles, tense and activity indicators, and message density of verbs. The recommendation is to include the passive voice fully and a major justification is enhanced mastery of être *and* avoir *in all appropriate tenses and the past participles of all appropriate verbs.*

An early assumption of mine, that the French make serious efforts to avoid the subjunctive mood and the passive voice, was not the result of my contact with Francophonia, but rather was the idea of fellow anglophone instructors and colleagues. The corollary assumption that the *passé simple* is dead survives more or less because some contemporary writers, Marguerite Duras being an important example, are inclined to create less formal texts. Even this merits only partial credit in view of the editing of fairy tales for French children with this "dead" tense. While it is a fact that the students will see no subjunctive mood, passive voice, or simple past tense after they complete their language requirement and give away or sell their French texts, the few who choose to continue their French studies deserve to know that French has not been simplified to the point of adopting spoken and written styles that are all indicative mood, all active voice, and all *passé composé* in the past. As a result of doubts about the validity of these assumptions, I have become increasingly careful to present these structures by at least recognizing their importance and vitality. Nor do I concede that the subjunctive of the imperfect is an archeological adventure.

Of the three structures—tense, mood, and voice—it is voice that arises as a problem earliest and is probably the most easily addressed. The need for an awareness of voice becomes clear enough for students who are learning the *passé composé*, about midway through the first year, because of deceptive structural similarities that will be discussed below.

Under the influence of the textbooks from which I taught, I continued to assume that the major instructional problem was whether to teach or to ignore the passive voice. Eventually this issue proved secondary to something more useful and productive: teaching the three ways that the French can suppress the agent, or real subject. These are, of course, by reflexive verbs, by using *on* as the subject pronoun, and by the passive voice. This approach resolves certain instructional problems by omitting opinions about contemporary developments in French expression, by drawing learners' attention to the useful concept of "agent," and by facilitating mastery of the first verb, *être*, in all appropriate tenses. In illustrating the use of the passive voice at the intermediate level of SCOLA broadcasts, Camille Kennedy Vande Berg proposes as a sample question for the students to answer: "Par quelle concurrente la compagnie Pan Am a-t-elle été absorbée?" The passive here is irresistible. We do indeed ask intermediate students, and beginners as well, to recognize and even use the passive. Without our having applied pertinent approaches to this structure, some of our students who are neither dull nor lazy may respond: *"La compagnie Pan Am a absorbé par Northwest Orient" (note: all incorrect structures used as examples will be identified by "*") and remain far from appreciating the nonsense of their answer. Even alert students frequently do not grasp the semantic thrust of such an utterance.

In the first year, we teach *on* …, numerous reflexives, the *passé composé*, and participial predicate adjectives. These structures put the beginner in the position of unwittingly offering active structures despite their passive intent, as I have just illustrated. Except for the predicate adjectives, these structures are not simple equivalents for the English structures; they cause problems. On the other hand, French and English share the same structure for voice which renders a much gentler absorption than the other three mentioned above. Promoting mastery of voice at earlier stages in the instructional sequence is not intended to interfere with mastery of the other, and often more readily used, patterns for suppressing the agent. Indeed, the proper objective is not to teach beginning students how to avoid the passive, but rather to teach them the three ways to suppress the agent. If the locale of the production of champagne, for example, is to be affirmed, we may use any of three statements:

1. *On produit le champagne en Champagne.*
   —indefinite subject pronoun
2. *Le champagne se produit en Champagne.*
   —pronominal verb
3. *Le champagne est produit en Champagne.*
   —passive voice

Thus, the passive is never used to "avoid" the pronominal or the indefinite subject pronoun any more than the latter two are used reciprocally to replace the passive voice. The current tendency is to hold voice for the intermediate level while introducing *on* and pronominal verbs early in the first year. The function of "suppressing the agent" is rarely acknowledged, and probably never taught. Indeed, the currency that "avoiding the passive" enjoys almost necessarily suppresses the more comprehensive objective. My proposal to authors of future beginning French textbooks as well as to instructors is to stress "agent suppression" through three structures, namely the two that we routinely teach during the first several lessons and the passive voice.

Rare is the textbook in beginning French that emphasizes voice. Many consider it an ambitious concept for the beginner and suppose that it takes a long time to present; the objective of such a lesson may seem insignificant. Several textbooks observe a frequency contrast between the passive in French as opposed to English usage, the latter assumed to be more prone to use the passive. A census of this tendency might affirm a difference. It simply does not matter, however, and the space used to point it out—even if accurate—is wasted. Both the annoying passive voice and the troublesome subjunctive mood, for all of that, are robust and neglecting them in beginning French courses is no favor to any learner. In response to possible concerns about "elitist" instruction that might be raised against my proposal, I contend that there is no proof or even persuasive demonstration that complete instruction caters to elitism. Nonetheless, I have heard colleagues express anxiety about uneven success among students, a situation that excites the fear of generating an elite in the United States. If that fear were justifiable, equal ignorance would seem to stand as our most legitimate objective.

In proposing "guided instruction," an approach for presenting grammar, Carol Herron and Michael Tomasello choose no fewer than ten target structures for their demonstration without including the passive voice. Lest I seem to fault their list under the pretext that they prefer some minor problem to a major one, I acknowledge that the list is withal excellent and the ten structures are indeed those that my classes wrestle with, not always successfully. Rather, I suspect that the problem of voice, if indeed only eleventh in importance, indicates that the list of ten target structures is too short by one.

Of the 41 texts (listed under Works Cited) that I have consulted, ten of which are intermediate, there are 23 that do not treat the passive at all, including three of the intermediate texts. Of the other 18, six discuss the passive briefly (coded † in the Works cited) and give hints on "avoiding the passive" as though otherwise the learners' style might not adequately develop. Eight texts include exercises in conversion of one voice to the other (coded + in the Works Cited) and eight discuss voice as a grammatical structure (coded # in the Works Cited). Of the two older texts consulted, one discusses voice in its various structures and has conversion exercises. The other traditional textbook merely alludes to the passive. My reason for assessing the interest in this structure that our current materials bear is not to suggest that we have so many cases of omission, but rather that something different might be done and what results we might expect. And all of this is entirely exploratory, conceding in advance that prudence could be on the part of leaving voice unnoticed. Doubts are, I trust, yet allowed.

Thomas Cox deals with difficulties in teaching aspect to learners whose native language is not aspectual: English, for example. We do, however, teach aspect in beginning French courses, expecting the learners to *begin* to make correct choices between the *passé composé* and the imperfect. In dealing with voice, which we tend to neglect, we have a structure that is almost identical to the English equivalent. This neglect is not easily understood nor entirely acceptable, particularly if based on the assumption of difficulty. What can work in the learner's favor is the reverse value of the "Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis" (LCDH) which asserts that native language difficulties are a possible cause of foreign language acquisition difficulties (Sparks, p. 289). The processes of the passive are already well anchored in the learner's mind. This happy reality is at odds with another, discussed below, which affirms that such advantages are not always productive.

The fairly diligent student who may write in a composition that *"... ma maison a construit en 1980 ..." merits attention because such an anomaly betrays several difficulties and recommends the search for solutions. Chances are that this same student, who has little difficulty in producing a construction such as "Nous avons construit" or "Nous avons fait construire," can utter without effort "Our house was built ..." And no, it is not altogether understandable that the unfamiliarity of French and the familiarity of English explains this curiosity. Altering the example, we must suppose that a reasonably competent student would construe "Nous avons vu" either as "We saw" or "We were seen" indifferently. Could it be that "Nous avons été vus" would simply confound the entire class while, curiously enough, that class is absorbing other structures of greater complexity? Correct exposure tends not to function quite profitably enough, as Carol Herron points out (1991, p. 966). In proposing more vigorous efforts with voice, I am aware of the impossibility of doing it all in a couple of semesters. Impediments to proficiency tend to hold fast until their psychologically propitious moment to give way arrives.

There is a critical objective in presenting the concept of voice and insisting on mastery of *être* and *avoir* in all tenses that have been presented and of the past participles of all verbs that have been presented. Observation persuades me that these functions bring the verbal system into focus. Students who recognize, understand, use, and convert one voice to the other enjoy a dexterity that leaves them with little to add to their effectiveness. The French clause revolves about a verbal nucleus, making of the verbal system the portal through which learners must pass to obtain the proficiency that we hold as a worthy objective. Marva Barnett observes that our efforts to stimulate improvement by correcting compositions do not produce the results that we seek (1989, p.31).

This problem may be partially explained by the continuum upon which the grader must function. At one extreme the student's errors are identified and the student is asked to make corrections. At the other, the student's errors are helpfully corrected and such help merely stands in the way of teaching or reteaching the resisting structure. Errors in voice are, despite the advantage of cognate structure, among the most difficult for students to rectify. The instructor might indicate that the written statement *"L'accident a vu par ..." needs an adjustment, without seriously hoping that the average student will ferret out the nature of the error from among the possibilities of simple agreement, auxiliary, tense, mood, or spelling.

Are we not sometimes left wishing that they knew what they have done right? French active equivalents for the English passive are not under consideration here, except to recall that the normal English equivalent of the indefinite subject pronoun *on* is frequently the passive voice. Certain problems in application result from neglecting voice. I resist the use of translation in the classroom. When I do deem English equivalents expedient, it is typically for such French active expressions.

For example, "On nous a dit que ..." can be rendered as the passive "We were told that ..." Exploring this passive/active equivalence, as a means of suppressing the agent, can be an excellent point of departure for both demonstrating voice and illustrating the properties of the French indefinite subject pronoun.

The uses of *on* and pronominal forms constitute a different instructional problem. An occasional reference to the English passive when these French structures appear is appropriate for introducing voice. We all agree that the human mind is an incredibly marvelous piece of equipment, if not an extremely talented servant. And yet, we often detect a strain of sloth in its discharge of duty and, who knows, perhaps the nadir of its assiduity converges with foreign language study. Then, the teacher's kit may simply not be good enough. The mystery could be removed by making learners aware of the analogy between the passive of French and English. Such a demonstration provides a short cut and a useful pattern. The learners must realize that, as well as saying that "Un mauvais mécanicien a réparé ma voiture," they can express the same message in the passive, using the English model "My car was repaired by a bad mechanic," by "Ma voiture a été réparée par un mauvais mécanicien."

Because this structure is rational, such is the process that ought to obtain it. With all due respect for the agenda of our students' minds, as well as of our own minds, both the teaching and the learning processes, particularly the latter, are seldom confined to rational results. I make this parenthetic observation because the several exact structural parallels between the English and the French passive voice make, rationally, learning that structure a "piece of cake" for the beginner of either language. I suspect that the problem arises mainly from the learner's being unaware of what is being done in the native language, even while doing it perfectly. What might be misunderstood is that the agent is suppressed because the speaker intends to emphasize an activity, perhaps with its object. Although we ask a good first-year student, "A quelle heure déjeune-t-on?" and often hear: "Je ....." (which probably flows from youthful egocentrism as much as from vocabulary deficiency), we tend to accept such a slightly incorrect response as proficiently adequate. More to the point, however, the same student may respond, *"Bill Clinton a élu président" if asked "Qui a été élu président?" And the teacher could well have asked, "Qui a gagné l'élection?" For my part, I want to promote mastery of *être*. Avoiding the passive voice would frustrate that objective.

The passive may be introduced after having presented the future and the passé composé. The propitious occurrence of several passive structures in reading and the erroneous use of active structures where passive ones are clearly intended would be the most dependable signals that instruction in the passive voice is needed. Uncommon ingenuity may be required if the methodology rejects any translation. With a more relaxed format, modeling the English passive should produce desirable results.

The ground work consists of several concepts: first, that the message is not altered in any way by change of voice; second, that real subjects and real objects may be expressed as grammatical subjects and grammatical objects; third, that the auxiliary *be/être* is used to express the tense without reference to the meaning-charged passive participle; fourth, that the meaning-charged passive participle has no other function than to express the activity involved; fifth, that, in contrast, the entire active verbal construction indicates tense; and sixth, that both activity and tense are expressed in the single form of simple tenses in the active. Students who can identify the agent of a sentence are on the verge of mastering voice. One of the greatest, if most ironic, achievements of our profession is enabling students to describe what they can do perfectly.

Demonstrating Identity of Active and Passive Messages

Using an unfortunate offering, such as *"Ma voiture a réparé …" lifted from a composition as a good faith effort at using the passive, is probably the best point of departure since the instructor can demonstrate the semantic, and comic, alteration. Thus, to lighten a heavy lesson, a short list of unlikely active voice statements could be distributed:

Ce film a vu ...   *Le vin a bu ...*   *L'entreprise gérait ...*
Son histoire n'a pas cru ...   *Beaucoup d'argent a donné...*
Ce cours haïssait ... .   *Le football ne joue pas ... .*
Tous les jours, Le Figaro lit ... .

Certainly some of these constructions could somehow be valid as they are, but the instructor can see that the intended values are obtained. A small benefit of this exercise is the reinforcement of the construction and interpretation, or application, of the active forms of all tenses that have already been presented. Simple examples in English remind learners that voice provides a stylistic variation for almost any expression. The dramatic statement "Mary shot John" is contrasted with its passive equivalent "John was shot by Mary" to demonstrate that both expressions affirm the same players doing the same thing at the same moment and hence bear exactly the same message. Not every learner, however, is quite sophisticated enough to realize that "shot" is not the same word (form) in each sentence. The integrity of English passive participles is somewhat obscured by regular verbs. Therefore, examples with strong verbs should be included, such as "Ralph did the work" and "The work was done by Ralph" so the active simple tense uses a different form from that of the passive participle.

An exercise that sharpens awareness of voice is the composition of sentences with prompts of subject, object, verb, and tense. For example, a sentence with *Monsieur Filâtre* for the subject, *un roman historique* for the object, *écrire* for the verb, and the future for the tense might be suggested. Without insisting, almost anybody would write "Monsieur Filâtre écrira un roman historique" although giving the elements in a different order could induce the passive. Asking the class to compose a sentence in the passé composé with *le malfaiteur* for the object, *voir* for the verb, and l'*inspecteur* for the subject could lead someone to use the passive. Even if the best effort is only *"Le malfaiteur a vu (par) l'inspecteur" despite the nature of the prompts, useful observations are in order. The class should appreciate the difference between semantic intent and semantic value. Recalling the question about the fate of Pan Am Airlines, the finesse involved in answering in the passive is the first goal. Next is understanding that the same question can be asked with: "Quelle concurrente a absorbé la compagnie Pan am?" Achieving this makes the learner more comfortable earlier with the French verb system.

Demonstration of the Syntactical Variability of Substantives

Whether noun or pronoun, the substantive may function in four situations with respect to voice: as a subject, as a direct object, as an indirect object, and as a prepositional object. In two of these, subject and prepositional object, it names the agent or the actor. One of the barriers to possessing the passive is the concept of a "real subject/grammatical object" construction that can be the role of the prepositional object. Different tasks are given to a construction such as "by the president" in utterances such as, (1) "She walked by the president" and (2) "She was fired by the president" with respect to action unless, of course, she was terminated by the foreman as she stood next to the president.

Long before the first lesson on voice, the instructor may use questions both in oral exercises and on written exams that are introduced by *Par qui ... ?* and perhaps paralleled by identical questions in the active voice: *Qui (fait) ... ?* Students who have learned to appropriate elements from questions for forming their answers will benefit from this kind of questioning. By way of example, here is a short list of questions that serve this purpose:

> *Par qui est-ce que les malades sont soignés?*
> *(Qui soigne les malades?)*
> *Par qui sera dirigé le gouvernement après l'élection?*
> *(Qui dirigera le gouvernement après l'élection?)*
> *Par qui est-ce que le radium a été découvert?*
> *(Qui a découvert le radium?)*

Likewise, the concept of "real object/grammatical subject" needs to be strengthened and that, again, somewhat in advance of presenting the passive. This is enhanced by a similar method, using *Qu'est-ce qui ...* as the interrogative grammatical subject. For example:

> *Qu'est-ce qui a été découvert par Christophe Colomb?*
> *(Qu'est-ce que Christophe Colomb a découvert?)*
> *Qu'est-ce qui est surveillé par les agents de police?*
> *(Qu'est-ce que les agents de police surveillent?)*
> *Qu'est-ce qui sera débattu par le Sénat demain?*
> *(Qu'est-ce que le Sénat débattra demain?)*

What can result from this and similar exercises is an awareness that the entire verbal structure expresses the tense in the active voice whereas only the auxiliary *être* can do this in the passive voice. Hence, the value of mastering this verb, along with its crucial partner *avoir*, in all tenses becomes obvious.

Function of the Passive Auxiliary

One of the several questions a reader or listener expects to have answered by the interlocutor or author is "When?" Such is one of the major functions of the verb by virtue of its capacity to express tense or time. While some learners participate in this operation both passively and actively in English and to an extent in French also, not all realize quite what they are doing to make the process work. It is no help to students of modest talent that French offers constructions such as "Mon père est fâché" which they understand as an utterance with present tense force but they may not be able to distinguish it from that of the passé composé of *être* verbs, "Mon père est parti" which must be learned as an active voice structure.

There are several ways to present the conjugation of *être* in every tense. However, judging from the typical interests of our beginning textbooks, those similar structures (*être* + participle) in different voices are presented without anticipating the confusion of voice. Unaddressed, however, the confusion might not dissipate. Ability to recognize and construct specific tenses is a challenge for students, considering that such pairs exist as:

Elle est oubliée. / Elle est arrivée.
Elle sera oubliée. / Elle sera arrivée.

The structural similarity renders the different tenses difficult to appreciate. The nature of the verb represented by the passive participle determines whether the auxiliary is the tense itself or merely an element of the tense. It is likely that many teachers refuse to introduce still another concept, however helpful, namely that of valency. Learners may not understand that the tense of *être* with a transitive participle is the tense of the entire construction. The affective awareness of these passive constructions can be stimulated by using each tense that the learners already know. At the end of the first year, students often deal with the present, passé composé, imperfect and future. Therefore, learners at this point should be able to handle utterances such as:

Pourquoi es-tu déçu?
—Je suis déçu parce qu'il pleut.
Pourquoi a-t-elle été déçue?
—Elle a été déçue parce que son ami ne lui a pas téléphoné.
Quel président était le plus aimé?
—C'est Kennedy qui était le plus aimé.
Qui sera déçu si nous partons?
—Mais, tout le monde sera déçu si vous partez.
Quand est-ce que ta voiture sera lavée?
—Elle sera lavée demain.

These kinds of questions are not those that students routinely handle well, but such should be the target-level of first-year achievement. It is less compelling however, that this level of articulation may be missed by some students than, for want of mastery of *être*, that the majority of the class should find itself checked at an unacceptable level.

Function of the Past or Passive Participle

To spare students the frustration of grammar, one supposes, most textbooks of beginning French identify participles as *past* and *present* without reference to the *passive* and *active* functions, or they deal with the *past/passive* form as the participle and leave the *present/active* to a higher level. Some introduce the passé composé without considering its composition. Indeed, one significant instructional achievement is persuading students that a past participle is not, all alone, the passé composé. In the passive voice, this form is a true passive participle and tells only activity. We must feel some sympathy for learners while they struggle to appreciate that those "past" participles help tell tense as well as activity in the active, but activity only in the passive. There is often a period of confusion since *être* as auxiliary is part of the tense in two situations: pronominal and intransitive motion verbs. We will look at this problem in the section Active Voice Tense Indication.

By the end of the first semester, about 40 contact hours, almost all programs introduce the passé composé. The learners have been exposed to passive participles and may even understand their adjectival use. Oral exercises requiring a change of passive participle should facilitate this function:

Sont-ils haïs?
—Mais non, ils sont aimés.
Était-il perdu?
—Oui, mais il a été trouvé.
A-t-elle été emmenée?
—Non, il a fallu qu'elle soit abandonnée.

Active Voice Tense Indication

A basic difference between active and passive voices is the structural indication of tense. Although the passive looms as the more complicated structure, it should in fact ultimately be appreciated as the more accessible simply because students can see the "seam" between auxiliary and participle as the line that separates tense from activity: one element tells when, the other what. The active, however, uses the entire verbal structure to express tense. This is obvious in simple tenses:

Elle court.
—present
... qu'elle coure.
—future/present subjunctive
Elle courra.
—future
Elle courait.
—imperfect
Elle courut.
—simple past
... qu'elle courût.
—imperfect subjunctive

The involvement of the entire verb in tense formation becomes understandable for composed tenses also once learners no longer treat the *plus-que-parfait* as the passé composé, a lingering temptation.

Elle a couru.
—*passé composé*
... qu'elle ait couru.
—past subjunctive
Elle avait couru.
—*plus-que-parfait*
Elle aura couru.
—future perfect
Elle aurait couru.
—conditional perfect

Observing and analyzing other composed tenses, such as the future perfect and the conditional perfect, in real texts merely for contrast, complete the demonstration of active voice tense indication.

The learner sees that activity is expressed only by the passive participle in compound tenses of both voices. This is the similarity that leads to confusion both in interpretation and construction. The intransitives of motion aside, the learner who possesses the forms and applications of *être* is ready to distinguish between active compounds and passives.

Message Density of Active Verbs in Simple Tenses

The English simple past and the French future have a remarkable capacity for relaying messages. For example, *saw* as the simple past of *see* indicates activity, time, and attitude. The French *verra* adds person and attitude. In a proficiency atmosphere, this consideration is addressed in some fashion and to some degree. Without an analytical dimension to instruction, however, the learner misses out on understanding the capacity of the verb to carry more than one message as a feature that distinguishes it from all other parts of speech, except the pronoun which carries both person and role (*je, moi*).

This privileged capacity of the verb in the preliminary demonstration of voice is the most readily assimilated lesson. The critical elements are the *quoi* and *quand* because these are the concerns of the passive, *quoi* being the domain of the passive participle and *quand* that of the auxiliary. A useful exercise in draining the value of verbs is an analysis of the content of certain forms. Letting a finite form represent an *énoncé*, proposing that the learners identify the various messages (person, activity, time, ambiance) can drive home the critical concept of verbal capacity. This can also refine the listener's and reader's reactions to various verb forms. The following is a proposed format that allows students to construct sentences that will address the several specific issues of what, who, where, when, and how:

énoncé	*qui?*	*quoi?*	*quand?*	*comment?*
irai	*moi*	*aller*	*plus tard*	*réellement*
aies	*toi*	*avoir*	*maintenant, plus tard*	*virtuellement*
finit	*lui, elle, on*	*finir*	*maintenant, auparavant*	*réellement*
prîmes	*nous*	*prendre*	*auparavant*	*réellement*
mangiez	*vous*	*manger*	*auparavant*	*réellement, habituellement*
feraient	*eux, elles*	*faire*	*maintenant*	*virtuellement*
a plu	*il, elle, on*	*plaire, pleuvoir*	*auparavant*	*réellement*

Conclusion

Thus, there seems to be a certain progression that leads to mastery of the French verb system, and this progression is allied to the message capacity of the verb which is unique among parts of speech because of that capacity. While adjectives do convey quality, number, and gender (*laid, belle, grands, charmantes*) and most pronouns express role, number and gender (*il, elle, ils, elles*), other parts of speech are limited to a single message (*et, gouvernement, tard, sous*). First in the progression of awareness is the complexity of simple active tenses. Next come the compound active tenses in which both elements are necessary to indicate tense although only the participle expresses activity. After that, there are pronominal and *être* verbs, active voice forms, which also express tense through both elements but activity only with

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the past participle. Finally, the passive voice expresses tense only by the auxiliary, always *être*, and the activity is expressed only with the past participle.

As beginning French class after beginning French class passed before me, as their understandable misuse of the verbal system became increasingly defined, I suspected that ignorance of voice could remain a serious hurdle between ineffectual written or spoken expression and communication. At the same time, French voice structure has such comfortable similarities with English that the beginning student can absorb it much earlier than has been assumed. The approach of several texts, listed in the Works Cited, could be self-defeating because the passive is introduced as an undesirable structure that the French avoid along with the imperfect subjunctive. Not only that, in itself dubious, some texts take pains to teach how to avoid it when, indeed, there is no reason to do so: no reason to avoid the passive nor any reason to teach its avoidance.

Many teachers teach only in French from the very first day. Many others are also devoted to a communication-based approach yet find it expedient at times to use English. There are some strong opinions about which style is more effective. Using textbooks in which grammar explanations are given in English can be sufficient comfort for the beginner, assuming, of course, that students devote some serious time to such a resource. When dealing with voice, however, the value of equivalent English structures is clear even though many students are hesitant to apply other close patterns, the near future for example. I confess that if the English near future, *we are going to leave*, is slow to lead the beginner fairly close to *nous allons partir*, and such is frequently the case, the advantage in reminding such learners of the English passive voice is rather slim. This learning barrier must result from the secondary experience. The majority of my freshman students are unaware of language as a topic of conversation. While I resist teaching them how to talk about language in general, it often reminds me of those tasks that are "dirty jobs, but somebody's got to do it."

This problem may revive the use of translation now unfairly discredited despite being a valuable tool when used with discretion. Recalling flawed attempts of my students to use the passive (such as: **le criminel a soupçonné d'autres crimes aussi*), I abandon all rigors of methodology that prove fruitless. Such "nearly correct" expressions beg the correction of translation. When American students read a sentence such as: "Les réussites de nos parents seront oubliées par nos enfants," they want to know the *meaning*. They may not detect easily who will forget what or whom. Most learners will digest linguistically such a statement once they can interpret the verbal structure as "will be forgotten" and understand how that can be so.

For students who grasp and apply the suppression of agent, a final demonstration is in order: demonstrating that not all identical sets of elements carry exactly the same message. One of several exceptions to the rule deals with military morbidity. This expression stands also as a lesser plea for the passive voice, since it is not disposed of so easily here. Consider:

Le soldat a été blessé. (Purple Heart!)
On a blessé le soldat. (Purple Heart?)
Le soldat s'est blessé. (Court martial!)

Thus, the passive is never used to "avoid" the pronominal verb or the indefinite subject pronoun any more than the latter two are used reciprocally to replace the passive voice.

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Appendix 1

A Teaching/Testing Module For Illustrating Suppression of Agent in French and Verifying the Results

I. Goals

A. To solidify the concept of the **agent** in the French verb system that students have acquired through textbook explanations and workbook exercises.

B. To intensify the students' awareness that **suppressing the agent** carries no semantic consequences.

C. To assess in a communicative framework the students' grasp of **suppressing the agent** in all appropriate tenses and moods.

II. Materials

A. Overhead projector

B. Handouts (to accompany textbooks deficient in appropriate exercises)

III. Procedures

A. In lessons

1. Presentation

Voice is a structure that can be introduced with some subtlety, saving explanations and demonstrations until either the students have a nascent communicative grasp or the instructor deems that direct presentation is imperative. When the students feel the advantage of being able to express activity without agent, or to stress the activity, along the line of *happening to* rather than *doing*, the use of the passive voice can be broached. Thus, it may be more rational for the reason of sequence to present the passive with object before presenting the passive with object and agent.

The answers given in this module are frequently mere suggestions and, in several cases, some creativity by the student is necessary.

2. Oral exercises

After the class becomes relatively comfortable with question/answer exercises and can provide simple complete sentences in response to questions pertinent to vocabulary/functions at hand, passive voice questions may be interspersed. Active voice answers are acceptable, although some effort is advisable to elicit answers that acknowledge the voice expressed in the question.

Of course, in an oral setting, the student has satisfied the objective of communicative instruction by answering correctly in either voice.

3. Written exercises

Several available textbooks offer exercises in converting voice. Frequently the objective is to simply reframe a sentence in the other voice. Students can be encouraged to justify choice of tense and identification of subject/object. If the prompts are projected on a screen, the explanations may be done orally for immediate assimilation.

B. For testing

1. Importance of *être*

Assuming that all instructors test for tense identification, comprehension, and construction, the strongest recommendation is to include *être* on every verb exercise and test. The emphasis on this verb entails an equal emphasis on *avoir* simply because there must be no confusion in any tense between these two.

2. Past participles

They may be tested as adjectives before introducing the passé composé. After the class moves beyond the present tense, past participles merit the same stress as does the verb *être*. By that it is meant that, without knowing the participles for virtually all verbs as well as all forms of *être*, a student remains far from attaining rudimentary proficiency.

3. Conversion demonstrations

The exercises proposed in this module invite the students to demonstrate rationally their grasp of structure, sentence components, tense, and **voice.**

4. As part of an hour exam, possibly covering one unit, the portion accorded to **voice** may be ten per cent of the total exam.

Test 1: Present tense

A. *Formez des phrases en rassemblant les éléments donnés et en ajoutant des objets, des articles et des adverbes au besoin:*

verbe	*sujet*	*voix*	*objet*
1. *manger*	—	passive	*pommes*
2. *ouvrir*	*inspecteur*	passive	*porte*
3. *ruiner*	—	passive	*snob*
4. *porter*	*hommes*	active	*chapeaux*
5. *vendre*	*fillette*	active	*fleurs*
6. *acheter*	—	active	*livres*

[***Réponses***]

[1. *Les pommes sont mangées avec le fromage.*]

[2. *La porte est ouverte par l'inspecteur.*]

[3. *Enfin, le snob est ruiné.*]

[4. *Certains hommes portent des chapeaux.*]

[5. *La fillette y vend ses fleurs.*]

[6. *On y achète des livres.*]

B. *Donnez les éléments demandés des phrases suivantes :*

1. *Le café n'est pas bu froid.*

voix : passive *verbe : boire*
agent : 0 *objet réel : café*

2. *Les enfants craignent mon chien.*

voix : active *verbe : craindre*
agent : enfants *objet réel : chien*

3. *C'est bien fait.*

voix : passive *verbe : faire*
agent : 0 *objet réel : ce*

4. *Anne est très aimée de ses amies.*

voix : passive *verbe : aimer*
agent : amies *objet réel : Anne*

5. *On y prend beaucoup de photos.*

voix : active *verbe : prendre*
agent : 0 *objet réel : photos*

6. *Ce journal est lu par beaucoup de gens.*

voix : passive *verbe : lire*
agent : gens *objet réel : journal*

7. *Nous rions beaucoup ensemble.*

voix : active *verbe : rire*
agent : nous *objet réel : 0*

Test 2: Passé composé, imperfect, and future tenses

A. *Composez des phrases en vous servant des éléments suivants:*

verbe	*agent*	*temps*	*objet direct*	*voix*
1. *craindre*	*hommes*	*imparfait*	*loups*	*passive*
2. *connaître*	*police*	*futur*	*leur fils*	*passive*
3. *vendre*	—	*passé composé*	*cette maison*	*passive*
4. *voir*	*Suisses*	*imparfait*	*guerre*	*active*
5. *recevoir*	*ma tante*	*passé composé*	*le colis*	*active*
6. *peindre*	*Manet*	*imparfait*	*tableaux*	*active*
7. *envoyer*	*nous*	*futur*	*l'armée*	*active*

[***Réponses***]

[1. *Dans le temps, les loups étaient craints par les hommes.*]

[2. *Leur fils sera connu par la police.*]

[3. *Cette maison a été vendue à un professeur.*]

[4. *Les Suisses voyaient mal la guerre.*

[5. *Ma tante n'a pas encore reçu le colis.*]
[6. *Manet peignait de magnifiques tableaux.*]
[7. *Nous y enverrons l'armée.*]

B. *Indiquez les éléments demandés des phrases suivantes :*

1. *Le président étaient estimé imbattable.*
voix : passive *verbe : estimer*
agent : 0 *objet réel : président*
temps : imparfait

2. *Nous n'aurons pas le temps de le faire.*
voix : active *verbe : avoir*
gent : nous *objet réel : temps*
temps : futur

3. *Quels médicaments ont été pris par Papa hier?*
voix : passive *verbe : prendre*
agent : Papa *objet réel : médicaments*
temps : passé composé

4. *Pauvre Pierre, il n'en savait rien du tout.*
voix : active *verbe : savoir*
agent : il *objet réel : rien*
temps : imparfait

5. *Est-ce que les voitures françaises seront vendues ici?*
voix : passive *verbe : vendre*
agent : 0 *objet réel : voiture*
temps : futur

6. *Franchement, Samuel a bu trop de vin.*
voix : active *verbe : boire*
agent : Samuel *objet réel : vin*
temps : passé composé

Test 3: Conditional, plus-que-parfait, simple past, and subjunctive

A. Composez des phrases selon les éléments donnés :

verbe	*agent*	*temps*	*objet direct*	*voix*
1. connaître	*professeur*	*plus-que-parfait*	*mes parents*	*active*
2. paralyser	—	*plus-que-parfait*	*côté gauche*	*passive*
3. obliger *(de porter ce chandail)*	*ma mère*	*passé simple*	*moi*	*passive*
4. poser *(sur la table)*	*Sherlock*	*passé simple*	*mouchoir*	*active*
5. recevoir *(Je voudrais que ...)*	*patron*	*subjonctif*	*nous*	*active*

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6. perdre *(Il ne faut pas que ...)*	—	*subjonctif*	*ce temps*	*passive*
7. savoir	*qui*	*conditionnel*	*la réponse*	*active*
8. décevoir	—	*conditionnel*	*enfants*	*passive*

[***Réponses***]
[1. *Le professeur avait déjà connu mes parents.*]
[2. *Son côté gauche avait été paralysé.*]
[3. *Je fus obligé de porter ce chandail par ma mère.*]
[4. *Sherlock posa le mouchoir sur la table.*]
[5. *Je voudrais que le patron nous reçoive bientôt.*]
[6. *Il ne faut pas que ce temps soit perdu.*]
[7. *Qui saurait la réponse?*]
[8. *Les enfants seraient bien déçus.*]

B. *Constatez les éléments demandés dans les phrases suivantes :*

1. *Monsieur Lebon avait été vu par la police avant d'être arrêté.*
voix : passive *verbe : voir*
agent : police *objet réel : Lebon*
temps : plus-que-parfait

2. *(Je crains que) ton frère n'y soit tué.*
voix : passive *verbe : tuer*
agent : 0 *objet réel : frère*
temps : subjonctif du futur

3. *Peu de gens feraient cela.*
voix : active *verbe : faire*
agent : gens *objet réel : cela*
temps : conditionnel

4. *Béatrice ne crut pas son mari.*
voix : active *verbe : croire*
agent : Béatrice *objet réel : mari*
temps : passé simple

5. *Le patron n'avait pas donné d'augmentations à ses employés.*
voix : active *verbe : donner*
agent: patron *objet réel : augmentations*
temps : plus-que-parfait

6. *(Je doute que) Robert en sache la vérité.*
voix : active *verbe : savoir*
agent : Robert *objet réel : vérité*
temps : subjonctif du présent

7. *(On savait que) tout votre argent serait perdu.*
voix : passive *verbe : perdre*

agent : *0* *objet réel :* *argent*
temps : *conditionnel*

8. *L'entreprise fut mal gérée par votre mari.*
voix : *passive* *verbe :* *gérer*
agent : *mari* *objet réel :* *entreprise*
temps : *passé simple*

The proposed tests are on three levels. The tense that is tested on level one, the present, should also appear in the tests at the two higher levels. The passé composé, imperfect, and future, the tenses of the second level, should also be integrated into the test for highest level, where the new tenses and moods to be tested are the conditional, simple past, subjunctive, and *plus-que-parfait*. Few programs have sufficient time for the other perfect tenses and subjunctive moods. We know that the neglected forms will be met later by students spending any time with the French language. It is a reasonable hope that, having acquired the sense of voice, they will deal with all tenses and moods effectively and constructively.

Appendix 2

Exercise 1

A. Oral exercise

1. *Es-tu surpris(e) qu'il neige (à Chicago)?*
    (a) Non, je ne suis pas surpris(e) qu'il y neige.
2. *Es-tu surpris(e) que je t'enseigne quelque chose?*
    (a) Oui, je suis surpris(e) que tu m'enseignes quelque chose.

2a. *Est-ce que le temps te surprend ici parfois?*
    (a) Oui, il me surprend souvent.

3. *Es-tu surpris(e) que je t'offre de l'argent?*
    (a) Oui, je suis surpris(e) que tu m'en offres.
4. *Quel professeur est le plus aimé des étudiants?*
    (a) C'est Monsieur Untel qui est le plus aimé.

4a. *Est-ce que tes parents t'aiment beaucoup?*
    (a) Oui, ils m'aiment beaucoup.

5. *Est-ce que tu es aimé(e) de tous tes voisins?*
    (a) Non, je ne suis pas aimé(e) de tous mes voisins.
6. *Est-ce que je suis aimé(e) le jour d'un examen?*
    (a) Non, tu n'es pas aimé(e) ce jour-là.

6a. *Aimes-tu le français?*
    (a) Oui, je l'aime beaucoup.

7. *Est-ce que les Américains sont aimés partout?*
    (a) Non, ils ne sont pas aimés partout.

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8. *Est-ce que ce pupitre est occupé?*
   (a) Oui, il est occupé.
8a. *Qui occupe ce pupitre-là?*
   (a) C'est Paul qui l'occupe.
9. *Est-ce que cette chaise est occupée?*
   (a) Non, elle n'est pas occupée.
10. *Es-tu bien occupé(e) cette semaine?*
   (a) Oui, je suis bien occupé(e) cette semaine.
10a. *Est-ce que tu apprécies la bonne musique?*
   (a) Oui, je l'apprécie.
11. *Es-tu apprécié(e) dans ta famille?*
   a) Non, je ne suis pas apprécié(e) dans ma famille.
12. *Quel cours est le plus apprécié par les étudiants?*
   (a) C'est l'informatique qui est la plus appréciée.
13. *Quelles leçons sont appréciées par les étudiants?*
   (a) Ce sont les leçons faciles qui sont appréciées par eux.

B. Written exercise

1. *Changez les phrases suivantes au passif :*
   a. *Beaucoup de gens lisent ce journal.*
      Ce journal est lu par beaucoup de gens.
   b. *On omet ce chapitre dans la nouvelle édition.*
      Ce chapitre est omis dans la nouvelle édition.
   c. *Certains Anglais prennent le thé à trois heures.*
      Le thé est pris à trois heures par certains Anglais.
   d. *On oublie facilement les devoirs.*
      Les devoirs sont facilement oubliés.
   e. *Le soir, un loup rompt le silence.*
      Le soir, le silence est rompu par un loup.
   f. *Un vieil âne tire* sa charette.
      Sa charette est tirée par un vieil âne.
   g. *Au Mexique, on boit le vin français.*
      Le vin français est bu au Mexique.
   h. *En Floride, on craint les tempêtes.*
      Les tempêtes sont craintes en Floride.
   i. *On retient les meilleurs travailleurs.*
      Les meilleurs travailleurs sont retenus.
   j. *D'abord on sert les dames.*
      D'abord les dames sont servies.
   k. *On ne peint jamais cette maison.*
      Cette maison n'est jamais peinte.
2. *Changez les phrases suivantes à l'actif :*

a. *Madame Untel est adorée de ses élèves.*
Les élèves de Madame Untel l'adorent.
b. *Les couleurs sont baissées aujourd'hui.*
On baisse les couleurs aujourd'hui.
c. *Les meilleures bières sont brassées en Alsace.*
En Alsace, on brasse les meilleures bières.
d. *Est-ce que «La Marseillaise» est chantée au Québec?*
On chante «La Marseillaise» au Québec?
e. *Les incendies sont toujours éteints par les pompiers.*
Les pompiers éteignent toujours les incendies.
f. *En principe, les flèches sont faites de bois.*
En principe, on fait les flèches de bois.
g. *Cette entreprise est gérée par une dame.*
Une dame gère cette entreprise.
h. *Les Russes ne sont pas haïs par les Chinois.*
Les Chinois ne haïssent pas les Russes.
i. *Le football est joué partout en Europe.*
On joue au football partout en Europe.
j. *Les ordures sont jetées dans la poubelle.*
On jette les ordures dans la poubelle.
k. *L'armée nous logent dans un petit hôtel.*
Nous sommes logés dans un petit hôtel par l'armée.

Exercise 2

A. Oral exercise
1. *Quand est-ce que ta maison sera construite?*
(a) Elle sera construite l'année prochaine.
2. *Quand est-ce que la Maison Blanche a été construite?*
(a) Elle a été construite au dix-huitième siècle.
2a. *Où a-t-on construit le nouveau lycée?*
(a) On l'a construit près du bureau de poste.
3. *Par qui ton testament sera-t-il écrit?*
(a) Il sera écrit par mon notaire.
4. *Est-ce que toutes les ordonnances étaient écrites en latin?*
(a) Oui, elles étaient toutes écrites en latin.
4a. *Qui a écrit «La Marseillaise»?*
(a) C'est Claude Rouget de Lisle qui l'a écrite.
5. *Par qui la «Déclaration de l'Indépendence» a-t-elle été écrite?*
(a) Elle a été écrite par Thomas Jefferson.
6. *Quand tu es arrivé(e) en classe, est-ce que les fenêtres étaient ouvertes?*
(a) Non, elles étaient fermées.

6a. *Pourquoi as-tu ouvert ton livre?*
(a) Je l'ai ouvert pour lire.
7. *En quel mois est-ce que la chasse au daim sera ouvert?*
(a) Elle sera ouverte en octobre.
8. *Est-ce que tous mes conseils seront suivis par cette classe?*
(a) Non, ils ne seront pas tous suivis.
8a. *As-tu suivi un cours de musique l'année dernière?*
(a) Non, je n'en ai pas suivi.
9. *A ton lycée, quel cours était suivi par la plupart des étudiants?*
(a) C'est la biologie qui était suivie par la plupart des étudiants.
10. *En rentrant hier, as-tu été suivi(e) par quelqu'un?*
(a) Non, je n'ai pas été suivi(e).

B. Written exercises

1. *Changez les phrases suivantes au passif :*
a. *On a servi un très bon vin.*
Un très bon vin a été servi.
b. *Le patron vous recevra bientôt.*
Vous serez reçu bientôt par le patron.
c. *Ils ont pris des mesures pour résoudre le problème.*
Des mesures pour résoudre le problème ont été prises par eux.
d. *Il mettait son argent de poche à la caisse d'épargne.*
Son argent de poche était mis à la caisse d'épargne.
e. *Tout le monde lira son dernier roman.*
Son dernier roman sera lu par tout le monde.
f. *Je ne faisais pas de miracles.*
Des miracles n'étaient pas faits par moi.
g. *On lui enverra l'argent dans une semaine.*
L'argent lui sera envoyé dans une semaine.
h. *Balzac a écrit le meilleur roman de son siècle.*
Le meilleur roman du siècle a été écrit par Balzac.
i. *On dira certainement cela.*
Cela sera certainement dit.
j. *Ils n'ont pas cru ton histoire.*
Ton histoire n'a pas été crue par eux.

Excercise 3

A. Oral exercises

1. *Serais-tu surpris(e) si les Clinton se divorçaient?*
    (a) Oui, je serais bien surpris(e).
2. *Crois-tu que je sois surpris(e) de te voir aujourd'hui?*
    (a) Non, je ne crois pas que tu en sois surpris(e).

2a. *Serais-tu venu(e) si je t'avais invité(e) chez moi?*
    (a) Oui, j'y serais venu(e) si tu m'avais invité(e).

3. *Si tu donnais une soirée, qui serait invité?*
    (a) Tous mes amis seraient invités.
4. *Qui veux-tu que nous invitions ce soir?*
    (a) Je veux que vous invitiez les Lebeau.

4a. *Avais-tu appris tous les verbes avant de suivre ce cours?*
    (a) Non, je ne les avais pas appris tous.

5. *Doute-t-on que le français soit bien appris par cette classe?*
    (a) Non, on ne doute pas qu'il soit bien appris par nous.
6. *Est-ce que cette leçon serait mieux comprise avec plus d'exemples?*
    (a) Oui, avec plus d'exemples, elle serait mieux comprise.

6a. *Sens-tu que ton père ne te comprenne pas?*
    (a) Parfois je sens qu'il ne me comprenne pas.

7. *Quand tu es arrivé(e) à l'université, avais-tu compris toutes les obligations?*
    (a) Oui, je les avais comprises toutes.
8. *Si un Chinois te parlait dans sa langue, serait-il compris?*
    (a) Non, il ne serait pas compris.

8a. *Comprendrait-on le français mieux si on montait plus de films?*
    (a) Oui, on le comprendrait mieux.

9. *Est-ce qu'il se peut que ce cours soit annulé?*
    (a) Oui, il se peut qu'il soit annulé.
10. *Si toute la leçon t'avait été expliquée, aurais-tu réussi au dernier examen?*
    (a) Oui, j'y aurais réussi si elle m'avait été toute expliquée.

10a. *Est-ce qu'on peut expliquer ce phénomène?*
    (a) Non, on ne peut pas l'expliquer.

B. Written exercises (including the simple past)

1. *Changez les phrases suivantes au passif:*
    a. *On ouvrirait les fenêtres s'il ne pleuvait pas.*
        Les fenêtres seraient ouvertes s'il ne pleuvait pas.
    b. *Il semble qu'on ne lise pas ce journal.*
        Il semble que ce journal ne soit pas lu.

c. *L'Allemagne avait déjà battu la France en 1871.*
La France avait déjà été battue par l'Allemagne en 1871.

d. *Avec tout le monde autour d'elle, Nathalie composa le numéro.*
Le numéro fut composé par Nathalie avec tout le monde autour d'elle.

e. *On avait invité le jeune homme au dîner.*
Le jeune homme avait été invité au dîner.

f. *Ces parents ne laisseraient jamais leurs enfants seuls sur la plage.*
Ces enfants ne seraient jamais laissés seuls sur la plage par leurs parents.

g. *Mustapha empoigna l'appareil.*
L'appareil fut empoigné par Mustapha.

2. *Changez les phrases suivantes à l'actif :*

a. *Le déclic d'un cadenas (qu'il verrouillait) fut entendu.*
On entendit le déclic d'un cadenas qu'il verrouillait.

b. *Le lieutenant serait tenu au courant par le capitaine.*
Le capitaine tiendrait le lieutenant au courant.

c. *Le projet m'avait été proposé par mon cousin.*
Mon cousin m'avait proposé le projet.

d. *(Il ordonne que) la voiture soit réparée sur-le-champ.*
Il ordonne qu'on répare la voiture sur-le-champ.

e. *La clef fut introduite dans la serrure par Hubert.*
Hubert introduisit la clef dans la serrure.

f. *(On nous dit que) nous serions interrogés sur les verbes par Monsieur Hamel.*
On nous dit que Monsieur Hamel nous interrogerait sur les verbes.

g. *(Je doute que) ce tapage soit fait toute la nuit.*
Je doute qu'on fasse ce tapage toute la nuit.

h. *(Elle dit que) jamais une seule mouche n'avait été vue.*
Elle dit qu'on n'avait jamais vu une seule mouche.

[1] Every third question is expressed in the active voice to facilitate moving more freely between voices. The proposed answers are merely suggestions.

Author

JAMES E. BLACKBURN, Associate Professor of French, School of Humanities and Fine Arts, Coastal Carolina University, Conway, SC 29528. Interests: foreign language acquisition, French civilization, Medieval provinçal literature.

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Instilling Passion for Language
Strategies and Techniques

Kenneth L. Sampson
Curriculum and Faculty Development Directorate

> *We had with us again as interpreter Peter Afanasenko...a scholar of the Russian soul as well as the language.*
>
> Colin Powell (1995, p. 468)

"It is impossible to teach language without the cultural context. There has to be a background for language instruction." Most would agree with these words voiced by DLIFLC Russian faculty member Ms. Ella Bekker. Beginning students come to our classes expecting to be surrounded and immersed in the culture of their target language. Often they end up disappointed.

Pressures on students to succeed on their end of training tests too often focus classroom attention on grammar, vocabulary, audiotapes, speaking and drills, drills, drills. Dated texts relate cultural events from eras when many DLIFLC learners were preschoolers. Some students possess little initiative or enterprise. The result can be barren, abstract, deprived classroom atmospheres. Life, spirit and enthusiasm—so evident the first few weeks of class—become quickly replaced with emptiness, dullness, and rigid routine.

This article points out the military and linguistic necessity of including culture as part of language instruction. It maintains that addressing the cultural based Content (regional studies) Final Learning Objectives (FLOs) within the DLIFLC classroom provides an invaluable, necessary foundation for enabling students to develop passion for the language they study. Three practical *methodologies, none of which take much time from target language classroom instruction, are then considered.*

Importance of the Cultural Dimension

The Military Imperative

> *Population distribution, ethnic backgrounds, languages, religious beliefs, and political loyalties of civilian personnel all emerge as significant components of successful intelligence collection.*
>
> Army Field Manual 100-23 (1994, p. 46)

Culture is a difficult, slippery, often hard-to-define concept. It is "considered one of the most complex in the English language" and is "involved in one of the oldest terminological wrangles in anthropology" (Ryan, 1996, p. 573).

Fortunately for DLIFLC linguist students, we can steer clear of this exhaustive debate. Our mandate is clear. Guidance from the Defense Foreign Language Program as described by the National Security Agency (NSA) and Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA) outlines areas of cultural study to be treated in our FLOs. Holidays and observances, customs, religious groups, ethnic/racial groups, gender issues and conflicts all come under the cultural umbrella. In addition to language proficiency competencies, our students must demonstrate cultural familiarity.

In addition to NSA and DIA guidance, the broader intelligence mission of our Armed Forces demands recognition of the cultural dimension. In the post Cold War world of support and stability operations, cultural awareness is essential. Addressing a recent Command and General Staff Officer Class at Ft. Leavenworth, a Marine Corps general stated, "You have to understand the culture you're getting involved in. We never do a good job of cultural intelligence, of understanding what makes people tick, what their structure is, where authority lies, what is different about their values and their way of doing business." (Scalard, 1997, p. 7)

Working with United Nations allies also calls for increased cultural sensitivity. Seemingly minor differences can become causes of great friction.

The services' military occupational specialties flexibility in our new world order likewise calls for linguists who alternately serve as transcribers, interpreters, or cultural advisors to their commands.

The Linguistic Necessity

> *In every sentence you speak, culture is there.*
> —DLIFLC Arabic Associate Professor Mohsen Fahmy

"To study a language involves studying cultural aspects tied to language; culture and language are inseparable" (Ryan, 1996, p. 573). Some DLIFLC faculty teach language often without a coherent, integrated cultural context. To stimulate learning, they may wish to provide students with a broad, cohesive framework of the world wherein their target language exists. To understand nuances of thought and expression requires this cultural dimension.

In addition, in some target languages, the religious dimension is interwoven within almost every linguistic expression. "Religion embraces the whole of life... [it possesses an] all encompassing quality... [It is the] very sap of the tree of life, not a part or activity along with art, thought, political discourse... and all." (Nasr, 1995, p. 438).

Strategies and Techniques

Concomitant Learning

> *Soldiers... must notice small differences and pick up nuances, developing the sensitivity to see key indicators.*
> — LTC Mark Corda, Commander, 3rd
> Squadron, 2nd Armored Cavalry Regiment,
> Bosnia and Herzegovina

Learning which accompanies or spontaneously arises from prepared lesson plans often leaves great impact. The human dimension, wherein genuine enthusiasm and passion naturally flows from a discussion or exercise at hand, affects all for the better. By taking advantage of occasions which naturally arise in the course of a day's instruction, our actions and anecdotes infuse a needed cultural dimension into the classroom.

I'm not advocating free wheeling, distracting talk sessions which cancel set lesson plans and schedules. Rather, in brief animated moments of sharing ourselves, cultural enlightenment—which leads to increased language acquisition—can occur.

Adjunct Instruction

> *You catch somebody's interest and you have them for life.*
> — Mike Stogner, DLIFLC Russian Chairperson

We usually do a great job acquainting students with foods, songs, dance, and tourist highlights of our target language culture. On the other hand, we often do not provide sufficient opportunities for developing student familiarity with military history, literature, novels, film classics, or artistic triumphs of the land whose language we teach.

One effective way to dispense such understanding is through adjunct instruction. Adjunct instruction seeks to carve out opportunities for brief, less-than-three-minute introductions to cultural highlights. For instance, Chinese faculty could bring to class one of the following novels: Pearl Buck's *The Good Earth*, John Hersey's *A Single Pebble*, Amy Tan's *The Joy Luck Club* or Alan Burgess' *The Inn of the Sixth Happiness*. A brief introduction to the work, designed to whet the intellectual appetite of students, may prompt the reading of such works.

A Vietnamese faculty member may present Bernard Fall's *Hell is a Very Small Place: The Siege of Dien Bien Phu* or Harold Moore's *We Were Soldiers Once and Young*. Familiarizing students with map locations of these battles links military, geographic and linguistic interests. An anecdote of personal experience associated with the conflict or site deepens the learning experience.

A prayer book of the Russian Orthodox Church or texts such as Steve Raymer's *St. Petersburg*, Nicholas Riasanovsky's *History of Russia* or Hedrick Smith's *The New Russians* may kindle new zeal within Russian language students. Copies of *Aramco World*, a novel such as Nahid Rachlin's *Married to a Stranger*, or the autobiographical accounts in *Desert Warrior* by Khaled Bin Sultan or Wilfred Thesiger's *The Last Nomad* would well serve Middle East students.

Headstart/Smartstart Training

> *The new military needs soldiers [sailors, airmen, marines] who can deal with a diversity of peoples and cultures, who can tolerate ambiguity, take initiative, and ask questions.*
> — Toffler (1993) p. 74

An often overlooked opportunity to provide a broad cultural orientation for incoming students is through Headstart/ Smartstart programs. Newly arrived students at DLIFLC often have between two weeks to three months before DLIFLC class work begins. Systematized instruction for these eager learners varies among our services.

Two new resources are readily available to meet this instructional need. Volume One of *Culture of the Arab World: Selected Aspects of Middle East Religion/Culture* addresses culture Content FLOs in a systematic, cohesive manner. Volume Two overviews 27 different Middle East countries. Volume Three, drawn from Special Forces and Department of Defense materials, specifically treats Arab manners and customs.

The *Culture of East Asia* series offers similar treatment of China, Japan, Korea, and Southeast Asia. Volume One gives the big historical and religious picture. Volumes Two and Three give a more specific survey, treating 17 countries.

Within the volumes, each chapter contains a short overview of the unit, the chapter narrative itself, a vocabulary list, questions for review, and bibliography. The design incorporates clip art and wide margins for a "user friendly" feeling.

Culture of the Arab World and *Culture of the East Asian World* are available in a number of venues. LingNet contains all volumes. DLIFLC's Middle East Schools have the Arab World series, in interactive format, loaded in the computer labs. A new CD-ROM *Culture of Arab/East Asian World* (XX0001), is available through Operations, Plans, and Programs (OPP) directorate channels. A few hard copies of each volume (AD 0232S, 0233S, XX0033S, XX0034S and XXOO35S) are in the DLIFLC textbook warehouse.

Cultural World of Central/South Central Europe (Bosnia), currently at the editors, became available January 1999. *Culture of the Russian Federation* came out in March 1999.

Faculty members, department chairs, and school administrators can "push" their Army, Navy, Marine Corps and Air Force chains of command counterparts to ensure these materials are available in company, detachment, and squadron learning centers. Students are the real beneficiaries when Headstart/Smartstart programs incorporate these resources.

Conclusion

"How does it all fit?" asked SPC Derrell LeBaron after one of my first culture Content FLO classes here at DLIFLC. The question, referring to the religious dimensions of culture within the Middle East, disturbed me for months. It inspired work for the *Culture of the Arab World* series.

DLIFLC faculty, course developers and staff, who recognize the military and linguistic importance of the cultural dimension, and who implement learning techniques such as adjunct instruction and concomitant learning while pushing for adequate Headstart and Smartstart training, enable students to see "how it all fits." In the process, passion for language is kindled. Lifelong skills develop. And, enthusiasm for our shared DLIFLC mission escalates.

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Author

KENNETH L. SAMPSON, Chaplain (Lieutenant Colonel) United States Army. World Religions Instructor, Curriculum and Faculty Development Directorate, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944.

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The Role of Culture in Language Teaching

Irene Krasner
European School II

Teaching culture in a foreign language (FL) classroom is often a controversial and always a difficult task. Yet, this issue can no longer be ignored, since the major shift in the practice of FL teaching has been made toward proficiency teaching. According to Galloway (1984):

> *One may define proficiency as the ability to sustain accurate performance of certain global functions within the variety of social and professional language-use contexts. Such real world performance requires students to display flexibility, resourcefulness, spontaneity, in contexts which confront them with the unpredictable as well as predictable, the unfamiliar as well as familiar.*

When approaching this topic the following questions immediately arise:

1. *Why teach culture in the FL classroom?*
2. *What elements of culture should be taught in a FL course?*
3. *How could culture be incorporated in a FL curriculum?*
4. *What are the techniques and methods of teaching culture in the FL classroom?*

This article attempts to answer these complex questions.

Why Teach Culture in the FL Classroom?

Rich Points and Linguaculture

I will answer this question using my personal experience and examples from the excellent book *Language Shock: Understanding the Culture of Conversation* (1994) by Michael Agar. In his book, he quotes Ron and Suzanne Scollon who stated:

> Recently we have begun to see that the main problem in interethnic communication is not caused by grammar. Although languages use grammar as the system of expressing ideas, it is the discourse system which produces the greatest difficulty ...The grammatical system sends the message while the discourse system tells how to interpret the message. (p. 164)

Agar gives a very interesting example of miscommunication between Anglos and Atabaskan Indians. Most of these incidents of miscommunication, "rich points," as he calls them, evolve from speech acts, not from the language "inside the circle."

> First, things that seem "obvious" or "natural" are not. Who talks first, who talks next; who opens and who closes conversations and how they do it—these sound like rich points that could wipe enthusiasm out of a lottery winner. (p. 166)

In the communication between Anglos and Atabaskans problems start right at the beginning. Atabaskans think it is important to sense the social relationship before they talk to someone. So, Anglos almost always speak first. The person who speaks first obviously introduces the topic. Consequently, Anglos control the topics of any discussion. The next problem comes when another person is about to take a turn. Atabaskans allow longer pauses than Anglos do. As a result, an Atabaskan will wait patiently for the speaker to continue while an Anglo has already decided that the speaker has finished. Anglos close off the conversation and set up future conversations by expressing pleasure at what has happened. Atabaskans do not like to make predictions about the future.

The Scollons, ethnographers who conducted this research, tell us that the differences they have described show up regardless of the language the speakers are using (English, Atabaskan, or Village English). The cause of the miscommunication is not the language itself, but a larger social cultural and psycholinguistic structure which is often defined as *linguaculture*.

From this example, we can see the importance of the awareness of other cultures. Anglos and Atabaskans do not meet the expectations of each other. They cannot use their cultural frames—e.g., patterns of behavior, which started growing in the unconscious in childhood. The interpretation one has of the other is that the conversation is not working, and that is the other's fault, since he or she does not fit in the boundaries of the appropriate expected behavior. Turn-taking and the choice of the topic are two major features which signal the distribution of power in a group. In the above example, the Anglo always controls the situation due to the difference in the socio-linguistic rules of communication in the two cultures. Breakdowns in communication arise not from the linguistic, but from the socio-linguistic differences. In other words, linguistic competence is not sufficient for successful communication. Culture is integrated in any communicative activity.

Survival and Cultural Proficiency

Cultural proficiency in many cases could be vital for survival. Thus, for many immigrants a job interview often represents a major culture shock. A job interview is a highly structured socio-linguistic event which entails many culture-specific conventions.

I am still very grateful to my ESL teacher who taught us the basic communicative non-linguistic conventions of passing the job interview. He was teaching a *language* class, but he knew that in the interview game not only the language but also cultural skills count. He insisted that we shake hands firmly, smile, keep eye contact, and be extremely positive about ourselves. All these conventions seemed weird and irrelevant to me at that time. I appreciate the awareness of these conventions now, since they have helped me to survive in this country.

Why was it so difficult for me to accept this social role-play? From the perspective of a recent Russian immigrant (I had just come from Russia at that time), the situation of a job interview can be decoded in the following way: During the job interview you are supposed to brag about yourself (be positive), be indiscrete (keep eye contact), be phony (smile all the time), and impolite (not offering a handshake), since in Russia, initiating a handshake is up to the woman in any social encounter.

I was evaluating the situation using my old socio-linguistic frames. I hadn't built the new frames yet. It took me some time to realize and to accept that language proficiency and communicative proficiency are two different things.

These examples show "the problem of speech acts and their cultural significance is not a purely academic one. It is a problem of immense practical significance." (Wierzbicka, 1990, p. 64)

Background Knowledge

Cultural awareness is important not only for real-life communication purposes. As a matter of fact, all foreign language skills require some background cultural knowledge. Some units of this knowledge have been described by psychologists and some by anthropologists. When talking about psychological dimensions of cultural studies, the *schema* theory could be useful. Schema is often defined as data structure representing the generic concepts in memory, it contains, as part of its specifications, the network of interrelations that constitute the concept in question."

Cole, who combined work in psychology and anthropology, pointed out that children internalize schemata of human knowledge from recurrent events in a particular sociocultural context. The sociocultural context can be described as the "social space," the niche in which the child lives at a given point of time. As the child grows, his or her social space expands and with it, his or her knowledge. The psychological process of acculturation can thus be linked to the analysis of cultural meanings in the adult world through the notion of schemata.

Thus students might not understand a given FL text not because of the language deficiency, but because of a missing link in their cultural schemata. This missing link might be a well-known target language nursery rhyme, historical event, or just a geographical name. Which leads us to the second question:

What Elements of Culture Should be Taught and How Might They Be Incorporated in the FL Curriculum?

Defining Culture

The first really contemporary effort to define culture was exerted by anthropologists. "Culture, they reasoned, was what their science was all about." (Seelye, 1981, p. 11)

In 1954, two well-known anthropologists, Kroeber and Kluckhohn, examined approximately 300 definitions of the term in a study entitled *Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions.* An exact common denominator was not found. Instead, culture, presented in many definitions, has emerged as a very broad concept embracing all aspects of the life of man.

Brooks (1965), who has been very influential in causing language teachers to recognize the importance of culture and its link with language, has identified five different types of culture: biological growth, personal refinement, literature and fine arts, patterns of living, and the sum total of the way of life. Very often this classification serves as a foundation for the list of topics that should be taught in a FL course. Although this classification might be useful and definitely should be taken into consideration, it gives a rather simplistic approach to the relationship between language and culture.

The language-culture relationship is interesting and unique. On one hand, language represents one of the constituents of the culture. On the other hand, each structure of the language contains bits of cultural information.

The Goals of Teaching Culture

To define what cultural aspects should be taught, it is important to determine the goals of teaching culture in the language course. Michael Agar talks about a three-step process of internalizing culture:

> Step one is a mistake. Something goes wrong. Step two is awareness of frame and possible alternatives. Step three is repair, tinkering with old frames, now brought to consciousness, and building new ones, until the gaps between you and them are filled. Mistake, Awareness, and Repair. The initials spell MAR, the Spanish word for the ocean. It's the appropriate acronym, because culture makes you aware of the ocean in which you have been swimming.

As teachers, we should be aware of this process and try to help our students raise their awareness about culture inside and outside the linguistic circle.

The goal, in my opinion, is to help students understand there are different cultural frames. Awareness of this fact should lead to a nonjudgmental evaluation, and finally to the acceptance of the norms of the target language culture. Agar (1994, p. 243) writes:

> The way those "other people" do things has its own coherence, a different coherence from yours. As you repair your frames, your mind and heart and soul become more complicated, you have new ways of seeing and doing.

Thus, the objective of incorporating culture in the language course is to lead the student by raising his or her awareness through intellectual analysis from the level of a tourist to the level of a person who has been immersed in the new culture. In other words, applying Michael Agar's MAR model, we should raise students' awareness about possible cross-cultural mistakes and help them to build new cultural frames. Mistake, as a stage of cultural development, might be avoided if appropriate training is provided.

Conventions and Social Amenities

According to V. Galloway's model (1984), the most obvious cultural aspects incorporated in the FL course would be cultural conventions—information about how people behave both linguistically and extra-linguistically in common everyday and crisis situations. Below is a list of the Convention Clusters according to Galloway's model:

> Street greeting, excusing self, leave taking, forms of address, greeting according to hours of day, asking or giving direction, expressing respect, thanking, politely inquiring, well wishing, giving or receiving compliments.

Galloway also points out that appropriate para-linguistic behavior might be discussed, such as gestures, touching, or eye contact as well as such social amenities as offering, making reservations, accepting/declining, praising, refusing, ordering, complaining, or requesting. Finally, such an extra-linguistic feature as etiquette should be matched to the conversation clusters.

Connotation

One more area of cultural awareness should not be forgotten, *connotation.* This dimension of learning deals with the point at which language and culture come together to form meaning. As Anna Wierzbicka (1991, p. 6) states:

> To compare meanings one should be able to state them (p. 6). In natural language, meaning consists of human interpretation of the world. It is subjective, anthropocentric, it reflects predominant cultural concerns and culture-specific modes of social interaction as much as any objective features of the world as such. (p. 16)

The cultural differences have innumerable lexical reflexes. The word "privacy," for example, is very common in English and clearly reflects one of the central values of Anglo-Saxon culture. The cultural assumption embodied in this concept is very characteristic: It assumes that every individual would want to have a little wall around him or her, at least part of the time, and that this is perfectly natural and very important. This word has no exact equivalent in Russian. Although, in the new Russian society, the notion of privacy is emerging as a social reality, the concept still needs to be explained and clarified when dealing with Russian students learning English.

Attention should be paid to the cultural connotation of a word within a context. The French word, "petit," for example, normally stands for "small." However, it often connotes endearment in certain contexts; such as *ma petite amie* which stands for "my girlfriend."

Incorporating Culture in a FL Curriculum

Cultural information is integrated, explicitly or implicitly, in any language-related activity. Information about cultural conventions can be easily integrated in any communicative activity from the very beginning of the course. Simple dialogs and exchanges could be enriched by cultural linguistic and extra-linguistic information.

As much as possible, contexts for language practice should be devised from culturally authentic sources. When preparing a lesson, teachers have to examine what cultural features might create difficulties and misunderstanding. It is an ongoing process, since culture is naturally integrated in a course.

The previous statement doesn't mean that culture cannot be approached in a planned and purposeful way. Area studies, as a part of a FL course, might be determined by the thematic areas identified by the curriculum, proficiency level of students, and their individual needs.

Irene Krasner

What Techniques and Methods of Teaching Culture Are Most Useful in the FL Classroom?

A key goal of teaching culture is to raise students' awareness about cultural features of the target language. Teaching toward that goal may be accomplished by simple observation. By observing the way people are taking turns, greeting each other, or using the phone, the students may extract a lot of cultural information. As most students, unfortunately, do not have the opportunity to experience the target language directly in the country in which it is used, teachers should bring the culture to the students by using authentic films, news broadcasts, maps, or menus.

Everyday TV news is an excellent source of cultural information. It can be used at different proficiency levels of students. All sorts of cultural linguistic, cross-linguistic, and extra-linguistic information can be ascertained from the news. Beginners might observe simple exchanges, greeting patterns, or appropriate distances, while more advanced students can comprehend more complicated cultural information and conduct cross-cultural analysis. TV news provides up-to-date information about a broad spectrum of topics: geography, economy, way of life, international and domestic politics, and sports. One cannot overestimate the importance of this information for understanding culture. TV news might be used as a basis for a discussion, a questions-and-answers exercise, or a lecture by students.

Another simple and enjoyable way to teach culture is to have students visit ethnic sections/restaurants of cities. Other well-known techniques include Mini-Drama, Culture Capsule, and Role-Play.

- *The Mini-Drama* presents an example of miscommunication in the form of dramatization. Students must discover the cause of the miscommunication.
- *Culture Capsules* provide brief explanations of foreign customs. The culture capsule need not be limited to oral presentation; it can also be interpreted with the teaching of reading and writing, or by means of visual aids and realia.
- *The Role-Play* demonstrates and rehearses appropriate cultural behavior.

One can find some more useful techniques in the *Intercultural Sourcebook* (Hoops & Ventura, 1980) and in *Teaching Culture* (Seelye, 1981).

An excellent source of authentic materials, which might be used for area and cultural studies, is the Internet. It provides rich cultural up-to-date information and can be easily adapted for various levels of proficiency.

Conclusion

Teaching culture in a FL classroom is complex. The concept of culture is difficult to define, but it is clear that in a FL course both linguistic and extra-linguistic cultural features should be taught. Failure to teach some aspects of culture could result in miscommunication, misinterpretation, and a major culture shock on the part of the students.

A critical goal of teaching culture in a FL classroom is raising students' awareness about the new culture. Acceptance, understanding, and empathy lead to real cultural and linguistic proficiency.

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Author

IRENE KRASNER, European School II, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: skills integration, sociolinguistics, and testing and instructional design.

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Reflections on Culture

Lisette Fox
European and Latin American School

This article examines some aspects of cross-cultural studies within the scope of my experience, knowledge, and readings. First, I will delineate a concept of culture; although this definition is continuously challenged by the potential of change. I will then explore the interplay of culture and commerce. Finally, I will examine the interplay of culture and ethics. I will analyze the shifting cultural and economic values as issues that either the economists or the humanists are bound to deal with under the banner of the future global village.

Defining Culture

A myriad of definitions are attributed to the word culture. It is commonly accepted that culture is a complex system of references and symbols that are historically transmitted within a group, tribe, nation across trans-national boundaries, or geographical areas.

In some ethnic groups, the cultural heritage is transmitted orally, like among the Celtic *gaeltacht*, the Australian aborigines or the Native Americans. In others, the written tradition facilitates the predominance of that culture in terms of official recognition because of the power of written documents that are paramount to, let us say, the oral heritage of legendary texts or saga; in short, the oral literature. The study of culture can lead to very steep abstract type of studies once we attempt to place events in a historical perspective. It is the work of epistemologists to help discern the validity of methods used in historical research about cultures.

The study of the way a culture views itself is of particular interest. For example, the concept of France's "*rayonnement culturel*" which is the dissemination of French culture throughout the world, might appear as a pointless statement considering the number of French magazines that are removed from the shelves of language schools or the fruitless, counter-productive efforts of French government-based policies to help a culture become influential abroad. Americans, on one hand, view themselves as enjoying a high degree of informality. When I trained my American clients to acquire travelling skills in French, I was struck by the fact they so often insisted on learning greetings in French as being the first and foremost element of training. The French, on the other hand, only reduce greetings to their simplest expression, eager as they are to develop social bonds in any other way, through rational discussion or casual talk. Yet, the greeting term "Bonjour!" is connected with so many social connotations that one would have to study French culture first, via the language, to perceive what is beyond its pure formal aspect.

Culture is relative and changeable in space and time: itinerant teachers of the Middle Ages knew it as they travelled and taught, as they went from one belief system or *weltanschaung* to a different set of values (Latin, the language of knowledge was at the time a unifying factor). From the sixteenth century on, the colonizer countries were able to expand their zones of influence, in part, because of their powerful navies and absolute monarchies. However, those days are long gone and what might have been labeled "eurocentrism" for centuries by some modern philosophers of culture could be replaced now by the emerging countries' own commercial ideologies and "universalism."

Culture and Commerce

With the use of wide-scale global telecommunications, it is hard to avoid being exposed to new cultures whether this takes the form of on-line chatting or cyber-economics. Because we cannot dissociate language from sociolinguistic concerns, we need to include cross-cultural studies into the language curriculum: (a) the new variables imposed by the net, (b) participate in the making of the global village (M. McLuhan, 1969) be it myth or reality, and (c) view the formation of economic blocs. On a political level, the value of creating economic supranational blocs is twofold. First, it transcends any difference by setting unified goals. Second, the prosperity it generates helps ensure peaceful relations.

There is a need for cross-cultural trainers in business to teach the way to hold a business card in Japan or how to be successful when negotiating with Indian or German teams. As it happens, the French, the Mexicans, or the Japanese use different paths of logic before they can come to an agreement or sign a contract (Fisher, 1980; Mole, 1990). There is no reason why foreign language teaching should not evolve alongside economic growth through an examination of these contrasts in behavior and style. New economic settings involving contact between different ethnic groups can generate "languages" like cyberspeak or other phenomena similar in nature to pidgin English, an improvised business jargon stemming from shipping needs of nineteenth century Chinese ports. Typically, these "languages" are spontaneously created to fulfill urgent economic needs.

Two cultures in close contact can make linguistic accommodations to suit their interests. However, sometimes these accommodations are not made. A case in point is the dispute between France and the U.S. in 1993 over the Gatt Treaty allowing the free flow of goods including film productions. At that point, France invoked "*l' exception culturelle*" as a protectionist barrier, claiming a movie should not be compared to a can of soup. France was, in fact, denouncing the inundation of its media by low-cost American productions. Ultimately, on a conciliatory basis, a trade-off was agreed upon since all countries have valuable cinematographic productions to offer. The lesson is that there will most likely always be, as a result of a well-targeted commercialization process, a receptive public to endorse foreign artistic production just as international moviegoers will continue to be appreciative of the technical perfection of American classic films.

When dealing with both sides of the Atlantic and while doing some research on cultural perceptions, I have seen a pattern: understanding the complexity of European politics is as arduous a task for Americans as it is for the French to grasp the full meaning of economic factors in American culture. While attending seminars on American Civilization at the University of Montpellier, France, I realized how much America, my country of self-imposed exile and residency, is still perceived as a utopia and not as the economic rule-setting and exports-oriented giant. In short, I feel the French are remiss in forgetting to make references to the role of economics. Likewise, many Europeans fail to understand that America is a country where self-growth is made possible in a society where information circulates without obstruction and opportunities arise in a climate of economic freedom.

Culture Ethics

Every culture contains an implicit and explicit code of behavior that determines one's rapport with others, our institutions, and the environment. Cross-cultural researchers examine and analyze the way each culture views emotions, socializing, individualism, money, authority, dying, elderly care, medical care, women's work, semiotics, or humor. The list of topics or social patterns is long because they encompass the scope of human experience itself.

The way the self is viewed in relation to society is heavily dependent on the tacit approval of the respective culture. A transgression might result in social ostracism varying in degree with the existing level of political or religious tolerance. But one has to be aware of the fact that the rules of culture themselves are shifting with time, space, and socio-politics. For example, America was, to a degree, a slave-owning society before slavery came to an end under the Thirteenth Amendment. Anthropologists do know that what is a taboo in one culture might not be one in another. The term *tabu* (Captain Cook, 1771*)* is a Polynesian word referring to what is contrary to the established standards of that particular group.

If we did a cross-cultural study of the concept of ethics, we would come up with interesting facts. For example, in one part of Scandinavia, one is allowed to deduct the amount of bribes on tax forms, or, in another country, prostitutes are protected under the social security system which lets them have access to healthcare. Another consideration is that a given culture can reach a high level of sophistication in the arts or technology, but is bound to collapse if lacking in moral values. From the past, Germany or Rome are examples of what cultural refinement could become, before Machiavellian forces took over and enlightenment declined. Each culture has its share of wars, crusades, genocides, invasions etc., but there is a tendency for any given culture to glorify its own history.

In western-based democracies, there is a strong belief that truthfulness and accountability are virtues that should be held high and that good things are normally derived from prosperity. However precarious a democracy may appear, establishing more separateness between political interests and the judicial system is worth the trouble and so is the adoption of conciliatory measures in the event of many of the intercultural conflicts that let each party reflect on its proper conduct in the future.

What hinders true cultural communication is, in addition to the lack of cultural exchange, the harm done by value judgments made without the full knowledge of all aspects of a given culture. For example, among the numerous pre-conceived ideas that exist on both sides of the Atlantic, there is a tendency in America to contend that the French dislike America; but this is in opposition to the overwhelming fascination with the United States as indicated by the sociological reality of France today. A common stereotype is the belief the French are uninhibited about sexual matters which they more than often combine with humor and aesthetics in the media; but little is known, in the general public, about the stern and austere movement of Port-Royal or the

Alpine religious dissent of the Vaudois that have definitely left a puritanical mark on the French character.

Conclusion

In short, I have presented a brief overview of some aspects of cross-cultural issues. While doing my research, I realized how precarious this field is. Ironically, the paradox is that by identifying some distinct cultural traits we may not be protected against the dreaded pitfalls of myth and stereotyping. I have attempted to demonstrate there is a need to develop relativism to tolerate differing values, knowing the impact of cultural norms on the individual are enormous and those values, patterns or references are inexorably condemned to change.

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Appendix

Research Application

Based on my research about societal norms across cultures, I designed an activity around a single cultural event: I selected the non-verbal interaction of a group of friends in a French café as seen on a video segment. The purpose of this activity was to obtain data about views of appropriateness from a class of students and use the input as a ground for discussion.

Materials

French in Action is a semi-authentic coproduction of Yale University and the WGBH Education Foundation in association with Wellesley College. It has been used across the United States including at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center in Monterey; it provides video support for students of a 25-week long French Basic Program. A particular scene from lesson 39 was the subject of the experiment. A video segment depicting a scene at the Fouquet's, a café on the Champs was selected for its high level of kinesics and proxemics: while a group of friends were talking about theater, friends and acquaintances "joined in." One of them was known to the group, the other had not been formally introduced. The protagonists in that lesson were already familiar to the students.

Participants

A class of eight students at the twenty-first week of the twenty-five week long intensive French Basic Program. Students had already overcome a phase of plateau, which usually takes place between the fifteenth and eighteenth week and which is characterized by fatigue. Student ages ranged from 18 to 36. Their backgrounds were diverse, but the class profile and dynamics allowed for a high degree of academic achievement.

Procedure

1. Students were given a series of multiple-choice statements about the possible interpretation of the visual, non communicative aspects of the café scene. These statements were meant to:
    a. describe the French group in their handling of personal space
    b. provide the basis for cultural interpretation of body motion
    c. encourage reflection on what is universally acceptable/ inacceptable in terms of behavior
    d. determine what is specific to French culture

2. Students were given some time "alone" since the teacher's momentary absence could help protect the students' genuine objectives and allow them

to negotiate independently.

3. Students were encouraged to "freeze" the screen at strategic moments during the running of the video series, and analyze the tacit yet meaningful behavior of protagonists.

The activity contained an open-ended question allowing to elicit students' opinions about non-verbal aspects of that social gathering.

Findings

Limits of the experiment

1. The fact that *French in Action* is semi-authentic is a handicap: It is uncertain as to whether Pierre Capretz or Barry Lydgate did or did not attenuate certain forms of French lifestyle in order to make them culturally assimilable to Americans. The lack of authenticity restricts the relevancy of cross-cultural experiments.
2. Moralizing is a factor leading to cultural myopia: The character of Jean Pierre became the focus of the discussion; the excess of familiarity he has shown dealing with his "friends" bred contempt among viewers. Is Jean Pierre's maleficence a projection of ethnocentric viewers? Is excessive familiarity a component of French social life? The age, status, and idiosyncracies of characters also came into play, making cultural aspects less discernible.

Benefits of the experiment

The activity encourages a reflective role on behalf of the students actively engaged in their own learning process by mimicking teachers' methodologies. Students becoming their own teacher is the key to a higher degree of conceptualization. Also, the fact that students deal mostly with nonverbal communication provides some stress relief since the activity is seen as a non routine challenge. Students can reflect on:

a. their own culturally conditioned responses
b. American perceptions of France
c. French social life

Students learn to:

a. make a non-judgmental assesment of interelational behavior
b. observe neutrality in the description of similarities and differences.
c. develop cultural flexibility

Further Implications

When using culture-rich documents in the classroom, we can say that among the numerous features that contribute to cultural identity, some are self-explanatory and need not be the object of minute analysis. For example, the numerous kisses French youth exchange upon meeting or parting; or a visual detail like the shape of the sugar lumps being served on the terrace of a café. Those that need to be under scrutiny contain a potential source of misunderstanding for non-native speakers: gestures, attitudes and the whole psycho-social make-up of the target culture which manifest itself in its omnipresent situational specificity.

Documents that are laden with culture should be the groundwork for classroom practice only. One cannot contemplate studying culture as a separate domain or for testing purposes because culture eludes any testing protocol: Its open, speculative components can only be assessed in a continuum.

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. While in the target country, what was the indication you were beginning to accept the new target culture?
2. At what stage did this happen and after how long?
3. Provided that time and money were not an issue, which culture would you like to adjust to and why?
4. How long do you think it takes for anyone to get thoroughly immersed, intellectually and emotionally in your own native culture?
5 According to you, what aspects of a new culture are most difficult to adapt to?
    a. economics
    b. political issues
    c. humor
    d. dating/mariage
    e. community concerns
    f. work-related matters
    g. leisure time/ holiday practices
    h. survival/ practical living
    i. religious concerns
    j. legal affairs

Author

LISETTE FOX, Assistant Professor, French Branch, Multilanguage Department, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: languages for business, second language acquisition.

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A Cross-Cultural Misunderstanding
The Case of the Arabic Expression *Inshallah*, "If God Wills"

Sadok Masliyah
Middle East School I

When persons of dissimilar cultures interact, the possibilities of communication difficulties occurring are often great. Among the major barriers to intercultural communication are political and nationalistic ethnocentricities. Religion can sometimes be an even stronger source of ethnocentrism.

There exists a strong unconscious tendency to draw conclusions about another culture based on one's cultural frame of reference. The individual's cultural frame of reference serves as a standard against which other cultures are compared and evaluated. This, in turn, may lead to misunderstanding about the other culture (Klopf & Park, 1982; Galloway, 1984). Furthermore, what a word denotes to one person may not carry the same denotative quality for another. In intercultural communication, the connotative meaning of words takes on special significance, and in some cases, the meaning of a word or expression might be different in different cultures, and thus, the use of expressions cross-culturally is problematic. It is, therefore, useful to differentiate between the semantic or the utterance meaning on one hand and the functional meaning or the speaker's communicative intent on the other (Searle, 1973; Cooley, 1983; Barnlund, 1988).

This study attempts to illustrate the aforementioned notion by taking, for example, the Arabic expression inshallah, a term widely employed in everyday interaction throughout the Arab world. It also tries to explore the reasons for misunderstanding the term inshallah by many Americans and other Westerners. Likewise, this study demonstrates the employment of inshallah in religious and secular *contexts and situations. The examples of inshallah in this study are collected from published materials and confirmed by myself (native of Baghdad) and three other natives of Arabic speaking countries. The Koranic quotations are based on M. M. Pickthall's The Glorious Koran (1976).*

The Source of Misunderstanding the Expression *Inshallah*

The expression *inshallah* means "If God wills, as God pleases." Some Americans and other Westerners often interpret it literally and pejoratively, thinking the Arabs abuse the expression to justify missing an appointment, or evading a practical undertaking, and avoiding a responsibility. They believe this reliance on the inscrutable will of God has a profound influence on the mentality of the Arabs and is perhaps one of the key barriers the Arabs must overcome in their outlook on life. They maintain that such reliance on God may deter the desire of the Arabs to lead, destroy their appreciation of the need for planning, impede their spirit of inquiry, perpetuate an unbalanced attention to the spirit of other worldliness, and obstruct their appreciation of the value of time (Langenderfer, 1965).

A faculty member at the University of Alexandria in Egypt related that when she was working in Morocco, a British employee of the British Consulate loaned her some printed materials which the faculty member wished to duplicate. The faculty member said in English to the British employee, "I will return this document to you in half an hour, *inshallah*. The British employee said, "What do you mean by *inshallah*." The faculty member said it meant, "If God wills." The Consulate employee said, "No, I need this document today!" The faculty member answered, "You will get it today, *inshallah*." She returned it in ten minutes to the employee, and the employee said, "We should use this expression as well, it's a good one" (Gregory & Wehba, 1996).

It frequently happens that an employee when told by his supervisor to do a certain job will say *inshallah* as a statement of future intention, not of disrespect. In fact, when obeying an order, or performing someone's wish in the United Arab Emirates, one says *inshallah* (Hawley, 1965). Many Americans and other Westerners might find such responses using *inshallah* too tentative, because they carry with them a sense of who they are, what they should be, and what they want to do. Their behavior is largely determined by their self perception. They are interested in their self-concept, self-image and self-reliance (Yousef, 1974; Fieg & Blair, 1980), and they stress individuality (Barnlund, 1974), and hence they are bewildered when they hear "if God wills." In addition, such a response in American tradition is understood as twofold because American society has adopted the Aristotelian "Law of the excluded middle," (i.e., there is no middle ground in verbal interactions—either it is or is not). For individuals of Islamic tradition, however, a strictly binary response may be equally difficult to comprehend and may appear hypocritical because in their experience an individual cannot tell definitely where he will be or what he will be doing at any particular time. Most Americans know this as well, but may not openly admit it in their speech—at least not through an established mechanism like *inshallah*. Such expression is generally unacceptable in their own culture; therefore, when the Arabs use this expression in their daily speech, they are misunderstood as insincere (Keddie, 1963) and fatalists (Lustig, 1988).

The Employment of *Inshallah* in the Arab World

Before demonstrating the myriad situations where this expression is employed, it is worth mentioning that the use of *inshallah* is conditioned in the Arab world very early in childhood. When speaking of the future, a powerful incumbency from deep in the psyche is called upon which forces the Arabs to use this expression. The use of this expression is a mechanism of social interaction. It is neither a simple means of shirking responsibilities nor a belief in fatalism. Like any norm, the Arab child acquires the appropriate use of *inshallah* largely unconsciously at his early stage of socialization.

One of the means of acquiring this norm is through folklore and anecdotes. The Arab child is told the stories of Juha, a fictional character appearing in many didactic tales, to instruct him on the use of the expression. In one tale, Juha plans to buy a donkey, and in the course of planning he tells his comrades of his intent, but does not say *inshallah*. His comrades implore him to say, "I will buy a donkey, *inshallah*," but he disregards their appeals and continues on with his pursuit. As the story goes, Juha's goal is not satisfied because his money gets stolen (or, in another version, he looses his money). Another popular tale in the same vein tells of a physician called in to aid a boy who is critically ill. The physician completes his treatments and says the boy will recover, but he is admonished by the others for not having said *inshallah*. Consequently, the physician dies and the boy recovers. The moral of these tales and others is that the use of the expression *inshallah* can assist the speaker in having his future wishes come true (Gregory & Wehba, 1996).

***Inshallah* in the Muslim Tradition and the Koran**

Inshallah is employed in many contexts and is only rarely used within a religious framework. In its strict canonical form, *inshallah* is used only with reference to God's will and the future. In everyday speech the canonical use of *inshallah* is not the only use, for it is used frequently in many secular contexts and situations as well. When used as such, it aims at expressing a wish and a hope that a certain action will take place in the future. Prior to mentioning these situations, it is necessary to trace the origin of this expression in the Koran and Muslim oral tradition (Hadith). The expression *in sha'ā-llāhu* in Classical Arabic or *inshallah* in the spoken Arabic dialects, is usually called *istithnā*, 'formula of exception,' or 'of conditional.' It means 'if God wills, if it pleases God.' This conditional clause is a fossilized utterance in most, if not all, Arabic dialects. The Classical Arabic verb *sha'ā*, 'to will' is never inflected in the dialects, and its only subject, though sometimes implicit, is Allah as it is attested in the Koran (Gardet, 1974).

The expression *in sha'ā-llāhu* in Classical Arabic occurs many times mainly in the later chapters of the Koran. Examples follow: "Come into Egypt, if God wills, in security" (12:99); "if God wills, we shall then be guided" (2:69); "thou shalt assuredly find me, if God wills, one of the righteous" (28:26); "say not of anything, except if God wills, and remember thy Lord" (18:23-24); and "you shall enter the Mosque if God wills in security" (48:26); "they will abide there so long as the heavens and the earth endure save for that which thy Lord willeth. Lo! Thy Lord is Doer of what He wills" (11:106)—a constant call to leave matters to God who directs and rules all men according to His decree.

The religious duty of the Muslim to consider the will of God prerequisite signifies that one cannot conceive the fulfillment of an action, the occurrence of an event, the execution of a thought or a plan except if God wills it. Nor is exemption possible for the judicial acts, contracts and witnesses, and even more, a statement of the state of salvation of the believer. There is certainly a risk that the classical formula *in sha'ā-llāhu* may provide a cover for some leniency, but the Muslim believer finds in it a new incentive to strengthen his good intention and this active abandonment of himself to the will of the Eternal God (Gardet, 1974).

According to the Koran one should always add the expression *in sha'ā-llāhu* to one's promise even when promising not to forget (87:5). If, however, one forgets, one should remember the Lord (18:24). The Koran relates how God criticized a party of men who forgot to say "if God wills" (18:17-20). Resting on this, the Muslim should add the formula of *inshallah* even when referring to an event which will undoubtedly occur in the future.

The Muslim oral tradition related that the prophet was confronted by a group of unbelievers who, to test his faith and veracity, asked him to answer three questions dealing with such difficult subjects as the nature of man's soul and the time of birth and death. According to the teller, for the prophet Muhammad, an uneducated man, this presented a formidable task. Muhammad was told he would be considered a liar if he would not answer. Muhammad left and returned the next day without the answers, but he returned again on the third day after having spoken with the Angel Gabriel, and in accordance with Gabriel's counsel from God said he would have the answer i*n sha'ā-llāhu.* Another tradition relates that the Prophet used to teach people going to the graves and reciting the Holy Koran, to say "Peace be with you . . . and we, if it pleases Allah, will join you" (Nawawī, 1988; Wensinck, 1936-39).

The Muslim jurists in the Middle ages maintained there was a risk that the use of *inshallah* might become a "ruse" to escape from engagements undertaken, or even an abdication from all responsibilities, especially in business transactions. Some of them tried to restrain any abuse of the expression by conditions linking the contracting parties in case of the non-execution of an agreement.

The Secular Use of *Inshallah* in Everyday Interaction

Although the canonical use of the expression *inshallah* in Arabic dialects is primarily religious, the recourse "if it pleases God" on the part of the believer conveys a wish that God Himself should come to his aid and remit the debt which he contracts without having the wherewithal to pay it.

Let us now enumerate the situations where the expression *inshallah* is employed in everyday Arab speech. For brevity, I will mention only the English equivalents of the phrases and occasions in which *inshallah* is used. Since these phrases bear striking similarities, it will suffice to mention a few current phrases which reflect Arab and Middle Eastern values and beliefs.

Following are the main interactions between semantics of words and their semantics in contexts of effective communication.

These interactions display variations in both meanings and behaviors from context to context. When the words in context are untranslatable in a one-to-one relationship, I refer to the functional meaning of the sentence or phrase.

Life-Cycle Occasions

Birth (Piamenta, 1970,1979,1983)

- A pregnant woman is wished an easy birth:
    a. *inshallah* you deliver safely.
    b. *inshallah* a safe birthgiving.
- Wishing a woman in labor:
    c. I invoke God's name on you (i.e., bless you), *inshallah* it's a boy.
    b. *inshallah* He grants you a son!
- Congratulating a woman who has given birth:
    -Thank God for your safety! *inshallah* He protects him (the baby)!; *inshallah* He delivers his father (from troubles!)
- Congratulating the parents of a newborn son:
    a. *inshallah* you see goodness.
    b. I look forward to be present on his wedding, *inshallah.*
    c. *inshallah* we come on his circumcision!
    d. *inshallah* you rejoice his wedding!
    e. *inshallah* he will be raised with your honor.
    f. *inshallah* we congratulate you in the happy occasion (wedding) of the rest of your children.
    g. *inshallah* he will be a support to his brothers.
- Wishing a woman who has given birth to a daughter:
    a. *inshallah*, we come on her wedding.
    b. *inshallah* you raise her with honor.
    c. *inshallah* God releases her father of all troubles, may He preserve him!
    d. *inshallah*, she will be followed by sons.

On Betrothal and Marriage (Canaan, 1927; Piamenta, 1983)

- Wishing to the betrothed couple to go through and celebrate the wedding:
    -*inshallah* you complete the rest, i.e., get married.
- To a fiancée on the occasion of his betrothal:
    -*inshallah* you furnish your future wife with ornaments.

- To the bride:
    - a. *inshallah* He gives you good luck.
    - b. *inshallah* God makes you happy in your marriage.
- To the couple after the wedding ceremony:
    - a. *inshallah* we come on happy occasions and happiness.
    - b. *inshallah* one thousand times may you be blessed.
    - c. *inshallah* you have happiness, wealth, and male offspring.
    - d. *inshallah* you have prosperity and sons.
- Blessing an unmarried girl present at the wedding of a relative or a friend:
    - a. *inshallah* the day comes soon when He takes you into account (as a bride!).
    - b. *inshallah* He fulfills your wish.
    - c. *inshallah* God destines for you good luck! (i.e., husband) and may it (i.e. your marriage) turn out to be good.
- Blessing a bachelor:
    - -*inshallah* God let you have good luck and a good and well-bred girl.
- Congratulating the parents of a newlywed:
    - a. *inshallah* I always meet you in happy occasions and may you live for the weddings of the rest of the children.
    - b. Be it blessed! hope (*inshallah*) for the wedding day of the rest of your children, may God not send your husband away! (i.e., may He preserve him!) to see the wedding celebrations of all. May God not bereave you.
    - c. An unmarried girl in Bahra in congratulating the parents of the bridegroom:
        - A: Blessed be the marriage.
        - B: *inshallah* He preserves your candle (i.e., 'may God preserve your youth!).
- Wishing to marry off the son of a friend, the following discourse goes between two women:
    - Umm Nihad: Umm Ya'goob when will you marry off your son Ya'goob? We want to rejoice in his happy occasion (i.e., wedding).
    - Umm Ya'goob: . . I wish, Umm Nihad, I see the day of Ya'goob's wedding come true . . . *inshallah* you see in your lifetime Nihad's wedding.

On Circumcision (Taymur, 1952; Canaan, 1927; Piamenta, 1979)

- Congratulating a father:

a. *inshallah* we will see his wedding.
b. Blessed be the circumcision, *inshallah* we celebrate the occasion of his going to school.
c. *inshallah* you live to see him hold the school certificate.
d. *inshallah* we will be present at his wedding.

Condolence (Feghali, 1935; Abribat, 1906; Taymur, 1952)

One is condoled with blessings of compensation for the deceased. Bereaved parents who are still fruitful are wished another child.

- To the bereaved parent(s) who have children:
  -*inshallah* the rest [of your children] compensate you.
- Wishing the bereaved not to be shown adversity anymore:
  a. *inshallah* God does not show you more difficult times.
  b. *inshallah* God intercedes for you! The life that has not remained with him (the deceased), may it remain with you! (i.e., I wish you a long life!)
  c. *inshallah* no one sits on the floor for you (i.e., mourn you).
  d. *inshallah* the deceased be your ransom.
  e. *inshallah* what he (the deceased) had missed in age, be added to yours.
  f. *inshallah* this is your last grief.
  g. *inshallah* calamity be severed from you.
  h. *inshallah* the deceased leaves behind longevity for you.

On a New Year (McCarthy & Raffouli, 1965; Piamenta, 1983)

a. A: Happy New Year!
B: To all, *inshallah*.
b. *inshallah* you live for more good new years.

The Use of Inshallah *on Occasions Other Than Those Concerning the Life Cycle*

In addition to life-cycle occasions, the expression *inshallah* is employed in everyday social contacts expressing courtesies, wishes, congratulations, hopes (sarcastic or ironic), apprehensions, warnings, wishes relating to religious rituals, visits and departures, meals, buying or wearing a new dress, moving to a new home, undertaking new enterprises, going away, consoling, encouraging, and resigning oneself to misfortune and nonchalant occasions. Following are a few examples for each occasion.

Congratulations on Moving to a New Residence (Frayha, 1957; Piamenta, 1983)

a. Blessed be the house! good luck!, *inshallah* its threshold brings you goodness.
b. May God make it blessed, *inshallah* you see goodness in it.
c. *inshallah* you live in it with goodness/blessing/joyful occasions.
d. *inshallah* the new house be blessed to you.
e. *inshallah* you enjoy living in the house, may it be a good omen (to a newlywed couple after moving to their marital residence).

Wishing a Person Who Has Worn or Bought New Clothes or Footwear (McCathy & Raffouli, 1964; Taymur, 1952)

a. Congratulations, *inshallah* you wear it in good occasions.
b. *inshallah* you buy one hundred dresses.
c. *inshallah* you wear/tear it in good health.
d. *inshallah* you tear out a hundred like it!
e. *inshallah* you wear its threads and may you enjoy it.

Congratulations and Wishes Relating to One's Livelihood, Business, or a Specific Enterprise (Frayha, 1957; Piamenta, 1979, 1983)

- To a person who has opened a tradestore:
  a. *inshallah* you will succeed in it.
  b. *inshallah* God promotes your affairs!
  c. *inshallah* God makes this store a store of wealth and blessing.
  d. *inshallah* you gain (concluding a deal).

- To one who comes back from finalizing a deal or a business:
  -*inshallah* you were successful.

- Having determined to act and get married, one invokes:
  -I will get married, *inshallah*.

If the interlocutor does not believe the statement and wants to express disapproval, he may respond sarcastically:

-When, *inshallah*?

- On a new appointment or a new job:
  Congratulations! *inshallah* it will be a good beginning!
- Wishing someone who is leaving to do business:
  -*inshallah* God makes you succeed!
- Wishing well to friends who helped serve the mourners on sad occasions like death:
  -*inshallah* you help only on happy occasions.
- Wishing success for a student:
  -Congratulations, *inshallah* you finish and complete all the tests.

Wishing Good Wishes and Health to the Sick *(Hawley, 1965; Barthelemy, 1935-1955; Piamenta, 1983)*

Wishing good health with the help of God for the healthy is a form of courtesy expressed on various occasions such as when greeting, congratulating, condoling, encouraging, admiring, entreating, thanking, etc.

- Visiting the sick:
  -How are you, *inshallah* you are well.
- Wishing a sick man who has recovered from illness:
  -*inshallah* you always be in good health.
- Kirkuk woman wishing her neighbor to stay healthy and well:
  -*inshallah* He will not let you fall off three of your needs! (i.e., May your eyes, hands, and legs not be afflicted by a disease!)
- Leaving a sick friend:
  -*inshallah* He grant you good health.
- Referring to household regarding the sick:
  a. *inshallah*, there is nothing bad in him.
  b. *inshallah* you don't see sickness again.
  c. *inshallah* the illness will come to an end and may I come again in your immediate recovery.
- Referring to someone seriously ill, one may use the following phrase:
  -*inshallah kher*, I hope it will end well. (lit. "God willing let it be well.")

- Wishing good health for oneself and for one's relatives whether in good health or in sickness:

  -*inshallah* God grant you good health! May He not make you need anyone's to inquire about your health!

- Lighting candles on the Sabbath eve, an Iraqi-Jewish woman invokes:

  -Grant us good health! Be our Intercessor! O God! grant health to all! (Thy people) Israel! Release (Thy people) Israel, O King, O Messiah of blessed memory! *inshallah* you save the live ones from suffering and the dead from dust.

- When hearing about someone's serious illness, disaster, misfortune, or death:

  -*inshallah* the Lord of the world be Merciful!

Wishing a Person Setting out for a Journey ('Abd el-wahhab, n.d.; Hawley, 1965)

- On setting out on a journey:

  -*inshallah* you go and return safely.
- Wishing a person setting out on a pilgrimage:

  a. *inshallah* you perform your ablutions by the water of Zamzam (i.e., May you make the pilgrimage to Mecca).

  b. *inshallah* may you be a pilgrim next year.

  c. *inshallah* next year you will be on Mt. Arafat. (One says it on the Feast of Sacrifice, usually to the one who has not made the pilgrimage.)

  d. *inshallah* your pilgrimage be successful.

  e. *inshallah* may the visit be accepted; in good health and may your visit be accepted!

  f. *inshallah* He grants you good health!

  g. In good health, *inshallah* your visit be accepted, we prayed for you (congratulating someone who has visited the shrine of a saint).

Entreating (Piamenta, 1979, 1983; Naqqash, 1978, 1980)

- Asking for alms:

  a. *inshallah* God makes your home prosperous.

  b. *inshallah* God makes your home prosperous, I can't pay (even) for bread, may I have a few pennies.

Wishing Death in Curses (Naqqash, 1986; Taymur, 1952; Piamenta, 1979)

- Annoyed by her son who gives her a hard time, an angry mother may say:
  -*inshallah* you die.
- When a Baghdad Jew who was called to read Psalms on the soul of the dead in the house of the deceased was not paid to his satisfaction by the bereaved family, he said:
  -*inshallah*, next time, when you call me I won't come. (implying that the family be bereaved again).
  - *inshallah* He doesn't let you enter anyone's house.
- A child is cursed by an angry person:
  -*inshallah* your mother be bereaved of you.
- Cursing someone who insists on going away, in contradiction with one's wish:
  -The hell with him! *inshallah* you go and never come back.
- A mad husband curses his wife:
  -*inshallah* the grave of your father be upside down.
- Being angry because his mother left him alone, the child invokes:
  -*inshallah* she dies.

Encouraging and Consoling (Naqqash, 1980)

- Upon hearing of some disaster or misfortune having occurred to someone, or after overcoming hardship, the person who undergoes a lot of troubles says to his/her interlocutor:
  -*inshallah* no one goes through the troubles of that day I went through.
- Complimenting the grandfather for his storytelling, the grandson says:
  -*inshallah* God not deprives us from your tales grandpa.
- When one is inflicted with disaster, misfortune, or death, one seeks God's benevolence for encouragement:
  -God is bountiful, *inshallah* everything will be okay.
- When reassuring one who has expressed anxiety, one says:
  -*inshallah* God comfort your heart.
- When one is undergoing a financial stress:
  a. I haven't got money to cover the expenses.

b. God is generous, *inshallah* He makes it easy on you (and send you money).

- When politely rejecting a request for lending or giving money, or offering help, the person who is turning down the request would say:
  -*inshallah* you don't need anything in the future.
- When a young man asks for a girl's hand in marriage, her father, not wishing to give him an affirmation on the spot says:
  -*inshallah* God is bountiful (i.e., time will tell, hope it ends well).
- When encouraging someone in strained circumstances, he is wished God's generosity:
  - a. A. By God I want to get married but I have no money.
    B. God is generous, *inshallah* He makes you successful; may He make you feel at ease.
  - b. A. By God, I want to marry, but I have no place (home) to live.
    B. *inshallah*, God will be generous to you, and you'll be able to buy a house!

Greeting a Child in the Morning and when Retiring to Bed (Piamenta, 1979)

When one opens one's eyes in the morning to receive a new day, one does not know what it hides, hoping it will be a good day. The first thing happens or person one meets in the morning is regarded as portending good or evil.

- When the child gets up in the morning, his mother invokes:
  -*inshallah* you got up healthy.
- Putting the child to bed, the mother wishes the child good sleep:
  -*inshallah* you have a sound and healthy sleep.

Meals and Food (Barghuthi, 1924; Hawley, 1965)

- At meals or when referring to meals, the guest says to the host:
  a. *inshallah* your house exists always to accommodate guests.
  b. *inshallah* God looks that your table continues to be loaded with food so that you may always be able to entertain your guests.

c. *inshallah* your dining table be unceasing to have dinners at!, may we dine on the occasion of your children's wedding!

d. *inshallah* we eat at your table on happy occasions.

- If the host is a father of a son, the guest would say:

  -*inshallah* we eat at the wedding ceremony of your son.
- Having drunk coffee, a guest says:

  -*inshallah* you serve coffee on happy occasions always!

Offered a drink or a cup of coffee by an unmarried girl in the presence of her hosting family, a bachelor jokingly wishes:

-*inshallah* you'll take me for a husband.

In Euphemistic Phrases (Piamenta, 1983; consultants)

- Expressing apprehension, relating to past time or future (with a rising-falling intonation):

  a. *inshallah* you didn't quarrel with him. (i.e., I am afraid you quarreled with him).

  b. *inshallah* you didn't lose the key. (i.e., I am afraid you lost the key).
- Warning or cautioning:

  -*inshallah* stay here and don't you dare move!

Miscellaneous (Piamenta, 83; Naqqash, 78, 80)

- To ward off fear from her son, the mother screams:

  -*inshallah* the shaking and the fear go away from you.
- A neighbor complaining about nasty children:

  -What do they want from us, everyday they smear the threshold with a black paint, *inshallah* a black headband blinds them.
- Avoiding a promise:

  A. When will we see you (again)?

  B. *inshallah* when I have time.

  A. What kind of a talk, *inshallah* is ? Say frankly you will not come.
- The host welcomes her neighbors and tells them that she will offer her only son as a sacrifice for them. Puzzled by her exaggeration, the neighbors reprove her saying:

  -*inshallah* God smite you, how don't you feel compassion for him and say such a thing, we invoke the name of Allah one thousand times.

- Referring to a woman accused of misconduct:

-*inshallah* God guides her on the right path!

-*Whereto, inshallah?* (seeing his wife getting dressed, a man interrogates her anxiously:

The formula *inshallah* may express concession and be rendered as "even if" in a beginning of a clause, or in a complex sentence whose main clause is elliptic, implying nonchalance. It may also be an echoed statement. Examples:

a. A. This bread is dry, don't eat it!
B. I am hungry, I do not care, *inshallah* (even) if it is a piece of bone, I will eat it.
b. A. Leave it, it's your brother's dress!
B. I couldn't care less (*inshallah*) let it be my father's.
c. A. Don't curse him, I worn you, his brother is an officer.
B. So what *inshallah* let him be lieutenant.

The Expression *Kher Inshallah* (Piamenta, 1979; Naqqash, 78)

Often the expression *inshallah* occurs with the word *kher*. The expression *kher inshallah* (literally "Let it be well, God willing") is a pathetic exclamation uttered in soliloquy, in conversation, or in response to someone's behavior. It is uttered in soliloquy in a situation where one is handling or manipulating something that all of a sudden would not work, or when being disappointed upon arrival at some address and finding the place unexpectedly locked, and so forth.

The expression *kher inshallah* is also exclaimed in surprise and/or anxiousness or indiscreetness when urging one's interlocutor to clarify his or another's odd or unexpected behavior. It is employed also to explain one's odd situation, or infirmity, to suggest one's idea, to release news hinted at expressing the 'hope' that by God's will, the odd be even and that all will be well.

Often, one says *kher inshallah*, "be it well, *inshallah*," one's interlocutor answers: "there is nothing but well." In an interrogative intonation, *inshallah kher*, differing in word order: It has the same meaning, whereas in a declarative intonation it signifies, "calm down! don't worry! *kher inshallah* is used in response to one's unexpected behavior:

-*kher inshallah*? What is it? What makes you laugh?

- Approached unexpectedly for a kiss from her husband, a wife may react:
  -*kher inshallah* what is the matter with you?
- One comes late to a party, the host inquires:
  -*kher inshallah*, I hope it is good tidings.
- Urging someone for news:
  -*kher inshallah*, Where have you been? No one has seen you for a long time. Hope everything is okay.
- Greeting:
  A. Peace be with you!
  B. There's no greeting and no talk between us.
  A. *kher inshallah*. O yes!
- Finding a friend at home alone:
  kher inshallah, gosh, why are you alone?
- Urging someone to suggest an idea:
  A. I have an idea.
  B. *kher inshallah*, go on! suggest it!
- Urging someone to tell the news:
  A. Have you heard the news?
  B. *kher inshallah* what is it? Hope it's good news.
- Being surprised by an unexpected friend:
  A. I have come to speak to you about something.
  B. *kher inshallah*, let it be good.

  A. Excuse me for a minute please, I came to reprove you.
  B. *kher inshallah*. for what?
- Unexpectedly running into someone in the street:
  -*inshallah kher*, where are you going? I hope nothing happened.
- Responding to a telephone call or to someone who comes early in the morning, one reacts to his friend:
  -*kher inshallah*! Good tidings, I hope.
- Asking a fortuneteller:
  -*kher inshallah*, what is it?
- Unexpectedly called on by someone bringing a message, or when told someone is looking for one:
  -ha, *kher inshallah*, yes, why is it that you have come?
- When unexpectedly called on, one would say:
  -*kher inshallah*, yes!
- To a mailman:
  -*kher inshallah*, hope it's good news.

- When told that someone has asked about another: "This person asked about you" i.e., he wished to tell you something but could not find you, the other person would answer:
  -*kher inshallah,* "I hope it's good."
- To someone who had a dream:
  -*kher inshallah*, hope it's well. What is your dream?
- Urging someone to explain his odd situation or infirmity:
  A. The situation is not well.
  B. *kher inshallah*, you don't say.

Conclusion

Taking the Arabic expression *inshallah* to illustrate a case of cross-cultural misunderstanding, I have demonstrated the occurrence of this expression in the Muslim oral tradition and the Koran, and numerated the various secular situations where it occurs in daily speech.

Generally speaking, this expression relates to systems of beliefs, observations and elicited by socio-emotional situations in everyday interaction. It is an exclamation of feelings, emotions and attitudes common to all speakers of Arabic, including illiterates, ignorant speakers of rudimentary Islam, and speakers with non-Muslim affiliation.

To understand the use of this expression and other such expressions in the various languages cross-culturally properly, it is important, among other things, to differentiate between the literal meaning of the expression and the speakers' communicative intent. This task may prove, in certain circumstances, to be difficult even for the native speaker, let alone to the foreigner. It is safe to say that similar expressions to *inshallah* exist in other cultures, and here the role of the teacher in classroom setting is crucial for providing the necessary background knowledge of such expressions for the learners. In doing so, the teacher should describe and explain such conventional utterances in the Target Language (TL) culture rather than evaluate them. This, in turn, will enhance the learners' awareness of the TL culture and expose them to a wide range of human experiences when encountering such expression.

It is important that the learners be made to understand that the cultures are organized in different ways than theirs. Equally important students must be taught to avoid quick and easy labeling of values found in the TL culture as "funny" or "dumb," "backward" or "progressive" and that their reactions to cultural differences should be neutral or non-judgmental. It is the task of the teacher to develop a cultural understanding of the TL culture for the learners, because when the learners' recognition of the TL culture increases, the learners become more conscious of their own culture and learn to respect other cultures.

The more the learners become conscious of and understand their own value system that govern their behavior, the better they are able to deal with the values they may encounter in other cultures and the greater will be their ability to understand and tolerate values of other cultures without criticizing them.

It is impossible to develop higher levels of communicative proficiency and become fluent in the TL without being aware of the most effective and appropriate means communicating with native speakers in various social settings and circumstances, and without being aware of the value system of the TL. Foreign language teachers must provide multiple exposures with the same expression in different contexts and situations, which, in turn, will ensure extended mappings.

Note

[1] There are dialectal differences among the socio-religious communities of Iraq. The Jews and the Christians of Baghdad speak dialect different from that of the Muslims, and the rural sedentary dialect differs from the urban Muslim dialect of Baghdad and some other cities. There also exists dialectal differences within Baghdad due to Classicization and a continuous flow of a greater number of non-Baghdadi speakers into the city of Baghdad (Blanc, Communal, p. 182, n.2 and Altoma, Problem, p. 6). Such dioglossia exists also in other Arab countries.

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Author

SADOK MASLIYAH, Chief, Hebrew Branch, Middle East School I, Defense language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: teaching methodologies, comparative Arabic and Hebrew linguistics, socio-linguistics, Hebrew studies.

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Officer and Enlisted Personnel Success in Foreign Language Learning in DLIFLC's 25-Week Spanish Basic Program

Ayça Dutertre
Middle East School I

In the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) of Monterey where the majority of students are military personnel learning foreign languages, most are enlisted personnel (privates to sergeants) and some are officers (lieutenants to colonels). A research study to help predict whether officers would be more successful in foreign language learning than enlisted personnel (or vice versa) would be potentially beneficial in placement procedures and eventually help educators and language trainers learn more about the learning process of learners. In the literature, there is no evidence as to whether the difference in rank has an effect on the end-of-program proficiency of the learners. Hence, the following empirical pilot study was conducted with learners of Spanish who completed the 25-week basic language training in DLIFLC; when the end-of-program listening and reading proficiency abilities (as measured by the Defense Language Proficiency Test) of 10 officers were compared with those of 44 enlisted personnel, the analyses of both the t-test and the ANCOVA (with DLAB aptitude test scores as a covariate) revealed non-significant results. The unequal sample size and the small number of officers may have affected the results; therefore, further research is recommended to investigate this phenomenon in a DLIFLC-wide study.

Background

"The students in Section B (one class) are doing much better than the students in Section A (the other class that started at the same time); shall we shuffle the students again?" This is a typical question that is asked during a team meeting early in the program among the team of language teachers in the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) language programs that receive about equal number of officer and enlisted personnel. If these language teachers are advocates of cooperative learning, they like to shuffle the students to assure a balanced number of students with diverse predictive learning potentials in each class (Barnes, 1976; Flynn and La Faso, 1972; Gilstrap and Martin, 1975; Kessler, 1992; Mager, 1968; Nunan, 1992). If they are not advocates of cooperative learning, they prefer to keep students with similar predictive learning potentials together. Making such decisions, however, requires a good deal of time and numerous meetings; one discussion follows another before a decision is reached.

At the DLIFLC, where a substantial number of foreign languages are taught (21 in 1998, based on the military and political needs of the U. S. government), the students are military personnel. When a new group of students enrolls in a foreign language program, the respective school must assign the students to different classroom sections which, based on DLIFLC regulations, should not exceed ten students. The coordinator must consider different ways of assigning students to accomplish this. In the case of language programs receiving almost equal number of officer and enlisted personnel as new students, the coordinator often simplifies the task by using only military rank to form sections. Later in the program, however, this distribution is usually changed, depending on the predictive learning potentials and the language performance of these students.

In the military milieu of DLIFLC, a research study to help predict whether officers would be more successful in learning a foreign language than enlisted personnel (or vice versa) would have potential benefit for placement procedures. The research question, therefore, is: "Do officers (lieutenants to colonels) do better than enlisted personnel (privates to sergeants) in a foreign language program?" To answer this question fully requires a DLIFLC-wide investigation. To begin my research at the earliest possible time, however, and to gain more insight into the workings of the research, I conducted a pilot study with students in the 25-week Spanish Basic Program of DLIFLC, comparing listening and reading proficiency test results of officer and enlisted military students.

There is a need for this study. No previous study regarding differences between these criterion groups has been conducted. One of the most recent studies that was done at DLIFLC, although not directly related to this one, was a correlational study concerning the "Relationships of Language Aptitude and Age to DLPT (Defense Language Proficiency Test) Results among Senior Officer Students in DLIFLC Basic Language Courses" (Lett & Shaw, 1993). In this study, the age and language aptitude (as measured by the Defense Language Aptitude Battery - DLAB) of a pool of basic program students in officer paygrades O-5 and O-6 (lieutenant colonels/commanders and colonels/captains) were correlated with DLPT scores. The results of the study showed that age is not a factor, but that level of language aptitude is significantly related to every measure of language proficiency used in the study: listening, reading, speaking, and attainment of DLIFLC graduation goals. Correlations of DLAB with DLPT measures of listening, reading, and speaking were .39, .34, and .40 (Pearson r values), respectively; all reached high levels of statistical significance. Correlations of age (which ranged from 37 to 50 years) with DLPT measures of listening, reading, and speaking were .14, .00, and .05 (Pearson r values), respectively. None of these correlations was significant. However, the significant correlation between the DLAB and the DLPT is definitely a relevant finding beneficial to DLIFLC teachers.

In another study concerning Canadian military personnel, "Age and Aural Comprehension Achievement in Francophone Adults Learning English," Seright (1985) tested for significant differences between younger and older adults (English as a Second Language—ESL learners) in learning rates for aural comprehension. The subjects of this study were members of the Canadian Armed Forces (Quebec francophones). Groups were created on the basis of age, but not of rank in this Criterion Groups Design. A pretest/post-test procedure was used to assess gains made by subjects in listening and to compare groups. The results of a dependent samples t-test were significant at $p<.0005$ with younger subjects (age range: 17-24) outperforming the older ones (age range: 25-41). A limitation of this study was that Seright analyzed gain scores, which tend to be unreliable. Nevertheless, the study suggests that in adult second language (L2) learners, the rate of achievement in aural comprehension decreases with the increasing age of military personnel. Even though Seright divided a total of 71 subjects on the basis of age, the older group including 21 subjects contained more noncommissioned officers—higher ranking military personnel (16) than privates—lower ranking military personnel (5). The younger group had 50 subjects (48 privates and 2 corporals). The rank difference may have played a role in the results obtained; however, there were no senior officers in the older group. Therefore, the question of rank difference is still not addressed.

Since there have been no previous studies conducted comparing officer and enlisted personnel (Research Division, DLIFLC, 1998), the formal hypotheses for this pilot study are in the null form:

1. In the 25-Week DLIFLC Spanish Basic Program there will be no statistically significant difference between the end-of-program listening proficiency scores (as measured by the Defense Language Proficiency Test-IV—DLPT-IV) of officers (lieutenants to colonels) and the enlisted personnel (privates to sergeants).
2. In the 25-Week DLIFLC Spanish Basic Program there will be no statistically significant difference between the end-of-program reading proficiency scores (as measured by the DLPT-IV) of officers (lieutenants to colonels) and enlisted personnel (privates to sergeants).

Method

Participants

The study started with a total of 74 U. S. military Spanish language students studying in the DLIFLC Basic Program. This total consisted of 11 officers and 63 enlisted personnel. Following an examination of demographic data collected via questionnaire (see Procedures), 10 officers and 44 enlisted soldiers who were enrolled were selected and served as subjects for this pilot study. These subjects completed the foreign language program and then took the Defense Language Proficiency Test-IV (DLPT-IV) (as is usually done by all DLIFLC Basic Program students).

Given that the number of subjects was so small (especially in the case of officers), I decided to include students from the original pool of 74 with limited previous exposure to Spanish. Limited previous exposure to Spanish was operationally defined as less than three years of formal study or informal contact with the Spanish language prior to the DLIFLC Spanish Program and as Spanish proficiency (prior to the Spanish Program in DLIFLC). Hence, none of the subjects had more than three years of previous exposure to the Spanish language. The percentage of subjects who had less than three years of previous exposure to Spanish was kept equal in both groups. Based on the descriptive data obtained from the questionnaires, one third of the officers had had less than three years of previous exposure to Spanish. To keep the two groups as similar as possible, one third of the enlisted personnel who had less than three years of similar exposure to Spanish were randomly selected.

Materials

The required test for this study was the most recent version of the government-wide and military-wide Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT-IV). The DLPT-IV was evaluated for reliability using the KR-20 procedure. Items in the test meet a goal reliability coefficient of .90 for item analysis (i.e., no less than .90), and the correlation between the multiple-choice DLPT-IV and the 'Constructed Response Test' (CRT) used to validate it is no less than .85. The CRT is an instrument specifically designed to validate the DLPT-IV. The CRT contains a set of questions per text requiring the test takers to construct their responses in written form; whereas the DLPT-IV has one multiple-choice question per text. For the purposes of this study the assumptions underlying the reliability and validity of this proficiency test are considered to be met.

Procedures

Subjects were asked to fill out a background questionnaire (see Appendix). Questionnaires were administered two days before the students took the proficiency test. Then the subjects were selected based on the questionnaire results. At the end of their training these subjects took the DLPT-IV as usual. Thus, the proficiency test scores were obtained for listening and reading comprehension.

The results of the questionnaire were used to control extraneous variables. Subjects answered questions regarding their educational background, their age, their first language, as well as the number and proficiency level of other foreign languages they might know. The questionnaires were given to the entire population (all students who were graduating from the 25-Week Spanish Basic Program) because the results were used to exclude subjects who might pose potential threats to the validity of the study.

In this pilot study, 10 officers and 44 enlisted personnel were selected based on the following criteria (control variables): (1) All subjects shared American English as their first language. (2) None of the students of the target language had more than three years of previous exposure to Spanish language and its culture. As mentioned earlier, one third of the subjects in each group had had such exposure, but these subjects described their own proficiency as limited or very poor. (3) None of the subjects had continuous exposure to the foreign language and its culture other than in the Spanish Program at DLIFLC (i.e., none of the subjects had a Spanish speaking person living with him/her throughout the training). (4) Students in both groups had at least a high school education. They were asked about the level of their education in the questionnaire; however, since the subjects of this study consist of two criterion groups, level of education is one of the variables that could not be controlled any further. (5) None of the subjects had studied or worked on any special projects concerning the area background for the target country prior to coming to DLIFLC.

The two groups started the language program at the same time and finished it at the same time (after 25 weeks of study). Both groups had the same curriculum, the same materials, and followed the same schedule of classes. They were taught by the same team of six teachers with the same methods. The subjects were treated the same as all other students. None of the teachers knew about this study; none of the students knew that they were subjects of this study.

Analyses

The scores from the DLPT-IV were collected as interval data: (1) from the listening portion, and (2) from the reading portion of the test. The mean scores were obtained. Data from the speaking portion of the DLPT were not used in this study because the scores are not interval data.

In this study of "Officer and Enlisted Personnel Success in Foreign Language Learning," the research question asked is whether the officers (as previously described) perform better than the enlisted personnel (as described) in a foreign language program (Spanish Basic Program, in this pilot study). The design of this study is "Criterion Groups" of "Ex Post Facto Class." The independent variable is "military rank" with two levels: (1) officers and (2) enlisted personnel. The dependent variables are DLPT-IV scores (for listening and for reading). A t-test (Case II) for Independent Samples was used as the statistical test to determine the significance of any differences in these two criterion groups in their performance on the DLPT-IV. The alpha level was set at .05.

In examining the data it appeared appropriate to conduct another analysis using DLAB scores. The Defense Language Aptitude Battery (DLAB) is an aptitude test all DLIFLC students must take prior to their language training. DLAB scores are used to predict students' success in learning a language and their performances throughout the language programs. Since the subjects' aptitude scores as measured by the DLAB were also available, it was appropriate to use one way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) as a stronger statistical test than the t-test in order to adjust for the effects of aptitude in case the groups differed significantly in aptitude. The one-way analysis of covariance using DLAB test scores as a covariate was used with a computer software program. The program was run in the Research Division of the institute, once for listening and once for reading.

Results

Table 1
Descriptive Data for Listening Scores

	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Officers	10	44.7000	4.373	13
Enlisted	44	44.4773	6.301	29

Table 2
Descriptive Data for Reading Scores

	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Officers	10	51.2000	3.736	13
Enlisted	44	49.8636	4.935	19

Table 3
Descriptive Data for DLAB Scores

	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Officers	10	101.2000	9.875	36
Enlisted	44	101.7955	10.038	42

These data show that officers scored only slightly better in listening and in reading. The observed statistic compared with the critical statistic (the calculated observed value of *t* compared with the critical value of *t*) for listening and reading yielded the results to accept the null hypotheses. The results were obtained with a computer software program for t-test (Case II) for Independent Samples once for listening and once for reading.

The computer calculated value of *t* for the listening proficiency was 0.11 which was non-significant ($p > .05$); for reading proficiency it was 0.80 which was also non-significant. The t-test on listening and reading scores confirmed the expectation that the differences between the average scores of the officers and enlisted personnel (Tables 1 & 2) were too small to be statistically significant.

As mentioned earlier, the underlying purpose in using one-way analysis of covariance was to control for the effects of another variable that might influence learning; DLAB scores were used as a covariant. However, before this test, a t-test for DLAB scores was run in the computer. The results of the t-test for DLAB scores (Table 3 for descriptive data) showed no significant differences between the two groups either (observed value of *t* was -.17, $p > .05$), indicating the officers and the enlisted personnel did not differ significantly in their aptitudes as measured by the DLAB. The analysis of covariance was unnecessary at this point, but it was run anyway to confirm the t-test results. It also revealed non-significant results (F = .020, n.s. for listening, F = .789, n.s. for reading, $p > .05$). These results confirmed the ones obtained in the previous analyses.

Discussion

It should be noted here that this pilot study had several limitations. The small sample size, especially in the number of officers, is the most obvious one. The extent to which the 10 officers are representative of the entire population of officers who have studied Spanish or other languages at the DLIFLC is questionable. Thus, findings cannot be generalized. Secondly, the sample size for each group is seriously different (in a ratio of 4 to 1). One of the assumptions underlying the t-test is the normal distribution of scores. Considering the means and standard deviations for each group in this study, since they do not appear to be markedly skewed, this assumption for the t-test is considered to be met (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). One might wonder, however, if the same is true for the assumption of equal variances. This assumption is also referred to as the "homogeneity of variance." Brown suggests that when the group sizes are markedly different, a glance at the descriptive statistics should indicate the degree to which the standard deviations (and their squared values) are different for the groups involved (Brown,1988). Ideally, the squared values of the standard deviations for each group should be as close as possible (Tables 1 & 2).

The reason for the use of analysis of covariance was to statistically adjust for any differences between the two groups in DLAB scores. Nevertheless, no matter how much care one takes in a study like this, when it is questionable whether the extent sample represents the entire population, it is difficult to place much confidence in the results. The fact that Spanish is a commonly used foreign language might also have affected the results of the study. If I could have done this study DLIFLC-wide with its 21 languages, would I have obtained the same results?

As part of this kind of research I would like, if at all possible, to conduct a great deal of ethnographic research in the classroom during the program, to learn as much about the learners as possible. The value of such a study would be to identify characteristics of successful learners, which could in turn lead to a study of the feasibility of imparting such characteristics to less able students. That the results of this study were obtained within a specific curricular-instructional context, with a given team of teachers, using a given set of instructional materials, with a given set of instructional methods and techniques, with a given schedule, with a given set of students, and in a given language point out the need for extensive classroom research to document the curricular-instructional context and takes us back to the question of generalizability of findings (external validity) and to the need for replication in research.

If I have the opportunity to do this research DLIFLC-wide (including more target languages), I will have a larger sample, in which case I may apply some additional procedures and control variables. After conducting this study, it became clear to me that ANCOVA (analysis of covariance) would be an appropriate statistical test to use to adjust for possible differences in variables like language learning ability (as measured by the DLAB) that might affect student learning (as measured by DLPT). For example, other variables such as motivation, could also be controlled through the use of analysis of covariance. A limitation of ANCOVA is that it statistically equates the groups only on the covariables involved.

In addition, I would administer the background questionnaire at the beginning of the classes rather than at the end, followed by short interviews to confirm the answers on the questionnaire as a control for the "reactivity effect." Sometimes subjects may form or solidify attitudes that they did not have before filling out the questionnaire. These interviews may be necessary to keep this effect from influencing the results to an unpredictable degree, and therefore, influencing the interpretation of the study (Brown, 1988).

I would expect "mortality" to be a threat to the validity of the study. DLIFLC Basic Programs last from 25 weeks (as it is for the Spanish) up to 63 weeks (for some other languages, such as Arabic). Some subjects may be lost due to early departure from the program since in the military it is not unusual to have changes in assignment. Some subjects may also be lost due to academic, medical or other reasons. This is why it is important to keep the sample size large enough to compensate for such changes. It is also important to monitor the subjects' status throughout the training because some subjects may change by finding international friends with whom to practice their target language on their own in their social lives. Unless such opportunities are made possible for all the subjects by the language department, this "maturation" in the subjects would inevitably affect the results of the study. Possibly, the personnel at the Research Division of DLIFLC could monitor the status of the subjects, in order to ensure that control procedures are maintained, since it is possible that none of the teachers would be informed about the study.

One of the intended control variables that could not be used for this study was to exclude all subjects who were not monolingual. Subjects who had more than word-level/novice-level proficiency in any foreign language were going to be excluded from the study. However, it became impossible to collect the size of sample used for the study with this variable; therefore, this control variable was modified. It can be reconsidered in a larger-scale study. The phenomenon I have experienced is that it is not possible to control all the variables at the same time, and still be able to get the targeted sample size (Brown,1988; Hatch and Lazaraton,1991).

If this pilot study is replicated, hopefully with the inclusion of all DLIFLC languages, as there are a good number of uncommon languages taught at DLIFLC with much larger student inputs, and if statistically significant differences between the proficiency scores of officer and enlisted personnel are found, the results for listening may indicate: (1) officers' X > enlisted personnel's X, or (2) enlisted personnel's X > officers' X and the results for reading may indicate (3) officers' X > enlisted personnel's X, or (4) enlisted personnel's X > officers' X with alpha at < .05. Thus, we could say that difference in military rank is related to differences in proficiency.

However, this would still leave us with the question of why rank matters. If the officers outperform the enlisted personnel, this could be due to their higher level of education, since officers have at least a baccalaureate degree where as most enlisted personnel do not; this is one of the factors that could not be controlled realistically to equate the two groups. If the enlisted personnel receive higher end-of-program proficiency scores, we might speculatively attribute this finding to differences in motivation and learning styles between the two groups within a communicative method. We could administer one of the learning style preference inventories to expand the scope of the investigation. Perhaps the officers are more analytically oriented learners and that is why they are not doing better with a communicative method. We could consider that the enlisted personnel are doing better because they are not so analytical (they may be global learners) due to their educational backgrounds or due to their lesser education in general. Such results would lend themselves to other research ideas.

Conclusion

If in a future study the results reveal one of these outcomes, then the problem of shuffling and reshuffling the classes one, two, or three months after the students have started the program might be eliminated to a considerable degree. Such results could be beneficial for the following reasons:

- If we believe that students can help each other and learn from each other, then we would have a balanced number of officers and enlisted personnel in each class (Kessler, 1992; Nunan, 1992).
- If we believe in adjusting curriculum to the learning potentials of students (provided that the learning potentials are indeed different), then it would make sense to keep officers and enlisted personnel in separate classes, so as to offer more challenging materials to one group and

follow a slower paced curriculum with the other group.

It should be noted that the purpose of a possible future study using the criterion groups design is not to make any causal claims on such results; however, research studies within any foreign language institution are extremely helpful. Such investigations can help us, as foreign language educators, in problem solving to facilitate the learning process of our students.

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Appendix

Congratulations on your completion of the Spanish program in DLIFLC. Please help us to learn more about language learning and to improve placement procedures by responding to this questionnaire. For questions that do not apply to you please write NA. If you need more space for your explanations, please use the back of the questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation.

Today's date: __________ Your graduation date: ______________

Name: Last ____________, Middle Initial _____, First __________

Sex: Male ( ) Female ( ) Your Age: ____________________

Are you a high school graduate? ______________________

Years of formal education after high school ___, Degrees ___, Major ________

Your Military Service: *Please check one*

U. S. Army ( ) U. S. Air Force ( ) U. S. Navy ( ) U. S. Marine Corps ( )

Other ( ) Please specify:__________ What is your rank? __________

If you are not in the military please specify your position:

____

What is your job title? ______________________

Is American English your native language (your mother tongue)? __________

Where you exposed to any foreign languages when you were growing up? ______

If your answer is "yes" state your native language(s) and briefly explain how you learned it (at home? at Saturday school?) ______________

____

List previous languages and check your proficiency [give rating of (E)xcellent, (G)ood, (F)air, or (P)oor] If you have had Spanish prior to coming to DLIFLC, please include your previous proficiency as well.

(1)__________ Listening ( ) Reading ( ) Speaking ( ) Writing ( )

(2)__________ Listening ( ) Reading ( ) Speaking ( ) Writing ( )

(3)__________ Listening ( ) Reading ( ) Speaking ( ) Writing ( )

(4)__________ Listening ( ) Reading ( ) Speaking ( ) Writing ( )

Is Spanish the language you have studied in DLIFLC? ______________

Please specify the starting date of your own Spanish program in DLIFLC: ______

Have you studied Spanish prior to coming to DLIFLC? ______________

If you did, please specify: Where? _____ When? _____ For how long? ___

How would you describe your previous exposure to Spanish language if you have had any prior to your DLIFLC Spanish Program? ______________

____

Did you have previous exposure to the culture of any Spanish speaking country? __

Please briefly explain where, when and for how long. ______________

____

During the course of your study in DLIFLC did you have opportunities to practice your Spanish with Spanish speaking people other than your DLIFLC teachers and classmates? (Specify how often.) ______________

____

Is there a Spanish speaking person in your family? _____ (If so, is that person living with you presently?) ______________

Have you traveled in Spanish speaking countries prior to coming to DLIFLC? (Briefly explain where, when and how frequently.) ______________

____

Have you been assigned to any jobs in a Spanish speaking country prior to coming to DLIFLC? (Briefly explain Where/When/How long.) ______________

____

Have you ever worked on a special project about the area background or culture of a Spanish speaking country prior to coming to DLIFLC? (Briefly explain.)

____

Please leave us a phone number where we can reach you if the data is incomplete (long distance is all right) ______________

Thank you for your time in completing this questionnaire. Your answers will be analyzed confidentially. If you have any questions regarding the use of this questionnaire you may obtain this information from Mrs. Ayça Dutertre ext. 5731/5523. If you need to turn this questionnaire at a later time please leave it with the DAD of the European and Latin American School, MSgt. Sally Cabrera.
Good luck on your DLPT.

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Author

AYÇA DUTERTRE, Assistant Professor, Turkish Branch, Middle East School I, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: intensive teaching of Turkish as a foreign language, curriculum design.

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An Experiment with Listening Materials
Is Packaging as Important as Content?

Yoshiko Kaneda
Asian School I

This report concerns ways in which the quality and appearance of audiocassettes might affect learners' use of them.

Process and Discussion

Developing students' listening skills to meet Final Learning Objectives (FLOs) is important to all of us who teach in DLIFLC's Japanese Branch. To help students, I prepare supplemental recordings that I copy on standard audiocassettes. Each student I work with receives about 60 of these audiocassettes during the 63-week program.

However, students complained repeatedly that the sound quality of these recordings was poor because they were recorded on recycled audiocassettes. Many students attributed low scores on listening quizzes and tests to poor quality of the recordings I provided.

At first I felt that the students were just making excuses. I did not think the sound quality of the recordings I provided was as bad as they claimed, nor did I think the recordings could adversely affect their listening. I was also a little offended because I had spent time and effort making and copying the recordings. I had even hand-lettered the labels I attached to each audiocassette.

So for a time I ignored students' complaints. I explained to them that it was necessary to use recycled audiocassettes because they were the best our school could furnish for practice purposes.

However, I began an experiment. Although it was a little time-consuming, I began labeling the students' audiocassettes with computer-generated labels that I devised.

I noticed that students seemed to like the professional look of these labels. Then a funny thing started to happen. Several students didn't want to part with their audiocassettes. It was my practice to ask students to return them for further recycling when they felt they no longer needed them and I was accustomed to getting back about 70 percent of the audiocassettes I had distributed. After I started using computer-generated labels, the recovery rate went down to perhaps 35 percent.

Students continued to voice opposition to recycled audiocassettes, however, and one day a student brought me a dozen factory-sealed blank audiocassettes he had bought. He asked me to use these when I made his recordings, attributing his mediocre scores on listening quizzes to poor quality of recordings on recycled audiocassettes.

I didn't accept his premise outright, but I recorded his next supplemental tape on one of his new audiocassettes to see what would happen. To his satisfaction, the student did better than usual on the quiz.

So I used brand-new audiocassettes and computer-generated labels for the next batch of supplemental recordings I made. Students said it made a big difference. They said the sound quality was improved. They said they felt more motivated to listen to the recordings.

Subsequently the class leader talked to the supply sergeant of our school and approval was obtained to furnish a generous supply of new audiocassettes for students on an ongoing basis.

Thus all students began getting their supplemental recordings on new audiocassettes with computer-generated labels. Though listening practice remained hard work for most of them, they loved the recordings and I heard no more complaints about them.

Implications

While it was obvious that the students I worked with preferred professional-looking audiocassettes, it remains uncertain whether the packaging and appearance of recordings really helps anyone's listening comprehension skills. However, it is apparent that students in general seem to have greater respect for professional-looking materials and seem to be more willing to make use of them.

The cost to the school of furnishing supplies of new audiocassettes is not a major expense. In my opinion, it is a good investment because optimal development of students' listening skills is a primary mission of DLIFLC.

It is extra work for teachers to obtain supplies of new audiocassettes and to make computerized labels. On the other hand, teachers who do this do not have to listen to repeated complaints about the quality of supplemental recordings and, better yet, students have no excuses for not using them.

An Afterthought

This report is not intended to be an academic study. It is, rather, an account of an experiment I conducted. Students inspire me in many ways. My sincere hope is that I always do my part in helping them develop language skills.

Author

YOSHIKO KANEDA, Assistant Professor, Japanese Branch, Asian School I, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944. Specializations: second language acquisition, listening comprehension development.

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Life of an Idea
DLIFLC Annual Program Review (APR)

Lidia Woytak

> *We all come up with ideas. We all think our ideas are unique, original, or valuable. Some ideas are ready to be grasped, others wait patiently to be picked up. Sometimes they come to us when we drink coffee at dawn, touch us when we walk in the forest, or strike us when we run for shelter in a storm.*
>
> *Once we grasp them, we try to appraise their value. Yet, we cannot: Ideas are free. They have no property value, no intellectual property value. We cannot even copyright them. Still we search for ideas everywhere. We save them from the cyberspace, we unlock them from the ivory tower of seemingly abstract research. We attempt to imbed them into our life before they move on, or disappear.*

Many new ideas were exchanged during the 1999 Annual Program Review (APR) of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) on February 24-25 at the Presidio of Monterey (POM), California. Representatives from the US Army, Navy, Air Force, Marine Corps, DLIFLC Washington Office, HQ TRADOC, National Security Agency, Defense Intelligence Agency, and the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communication and Intelligence (ASD/C3I) attended the APR. The program included opening and closing remarks by the Commandant, reports on the overall institute program by the Provost, reports on Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Persian, Russian, Serbian/Croatian, and Spanish by respective School deans, and an overview of DLIFLC Washington activities by its Director. Presentations were interspersed with discussions on goals, tasks, and strategies of Command Language Programs.

The participants came with a specific purpose in mind: Guided by *Vision 2010* and driven by their organizations' diverse requirements, they came to participate in finding the most effective and efficient ways to instill language skills in military linguists, utilize new technologies, and strengthen communication platforms and forums between the DLIFLC and various Command programs.

Command Language Program

In his opening remarks, Colonel Daniel D. Devlin, the Commander of DLIFLC at POM and Commandant DLIFLC, stated that a new national strategy calls for a comprehensive Command Language Program (CLP). Toward that end, he appealed to all service representatives to share their ideas, define their needs, and outline their interests to form a basis for a new defense language strategy. In his call, Colonel Devlin followed the lead of Army Chief of Staff, General Dennis J. Reimer, in his recent article in the Institute's professional journal *Applied Language Learning,* "Army Needs for the New Century."[1] General Reimer stated US Army language requirements have grown and diversified. In recent years, the US Armed Services have posted military linguists in over 70 countries. In addition to the traditional military language tasks, linguists have participated in civil/military operations, host-nation coordination for logistical support, military liaison, medical, and court services. The US Army needs flexible training programs to restore, sustain, and enhance language proficiency. Additionally, General Reimer pointed out that the issues of a conversion training into a related language and cross training need to be readdressed.

According to the DLIFLC Commandant, the input from General Reimer was used to form the Army Language Master Plan which in turn will be used to state Army linguist requirements. Colonel Devlin pointed out that similar inputs from the Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps representatives would guide him in defining the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP). Moreover, Colonel Devlin stated that the major functions of the CLP are to restore, maintain, and enhance language skills of the US military linguists worldwide. The Commandant stated his goal is to turn them into outstanding linguists motivated throughout their careers—and for the rest of their lives.

The Institute has designed three major events for these linguists: Command Language Program Managers (CLPM) Seminar, Worldwide Language Olympics, and Linguist of the Year Program. The events, conducted annually, facilitate communication among linguists scattered throughout various parts of the globe. Every year the CLPM Seminar is devoted to a different theme; this year's 10-12 May theme focused on assisting the military linguists through diagnostics.

Colonel Devlin stated the tools of military linguists are improving rapidly. He pointed out linguists in the field rely more and more on the use of the Internet for language enhancement. He also stated that computers allow members to contact each other and exchange information about good training materials. The Colonel said, "One thing we are getting better and better at is exchanging information. If someone has something that is working very well and helping that language program we try to get them to put that on our website, on LingNet, so that we can share it with all the other Command Language Program Managers." He added that this exchange of information ensures that "all the good ideas come to the top and make sure any bad ideas are eliminated."

Computerized Homework

The Commandant has been espousing computerized homework since 1996 as a means to leverage improvements in language learning technology. Research indicates that certain language learning tasks are best performed with teachers, others with computers, and some with both. According to the Colonel, tasks such as vocabulary acquisition, grammar-rule drill, and communicative exchange practice lend themselves to computerized learning.[2]

He indicated that the learner equipped with a computer could develop his own schedule and progress at his own pace. Such an arrangement would eliminate time and peer pressures. Learners acquire languages at different speeds. Some learn fast, others need a lot of time to reach a particular objective. Averaging out learning time to a group of ten learners in a lock-step classroom would result in fast learners wasting time and slow learners pressed to move on. Pressing slow learners to move on before they are linguistically ready leads to fossilized acquisition. On the other hand, learners following their own schedule and pace would not be afraid to test their linguistic hypotheses about the new language. They would be given a certain amount of private space and time in which the language samples uttered would not be subjected to peer review. Therefore, they would not be concerned about classmates' reactions to their mistakes and imperfect progressive linguistic approximations of the model. They would develop a learning style which fits them the best.

Such learners could consult a variety of software for microworlds, grammar drills and pronunciation feedback checkers, and computer-mediated communication offered by the commercial world. Colonel Devlin stated that he decided to call this learning practice "computerized homework" because this practice would use after-hours student time, not the valuable teacher classroom time.

Colonel Devlin also pointed out that the program would monitor student progress. In the morning, the teacher could instantly access data showing the quality and quantity of the homework. The data would automatically indicate whether an individual, group, or entire class missed a certain point of instruction. Thus, Devlin concluded, the teacher could use the computer to "spot holes in curriculum" and, subsequently, remove them from the syllabus.

The idea of computerized homework, if implemented, would alter functions performed by a teacher and by a student. Namely, a teacher involved in computerized homework would be more involved in planning, developing, guiding, and interacting activities and, consequently, less involved in repeating, instructing, correcting, modeling, supervising, and describing activities. Students, on the other hand, working on computerized homework would be more involved in performing, correcting, linguistic hypothesizing, planning, evaluating, and interacting.

The Commandant stated that the implementation of computerized homework would, in accordance with *Vision 2010,* redefine the roles of teachers and students. Teachers, freed from hundreds of mechanical tasks, could spend more time on higher level developmental and interactive activities and students, freed from peer pressure, could develop basic linguistic skills in their own time and space. He referred to an experiment conducted in the Spanish program. Spanish was selected because it could produce results within a shorter period of time than for most other languages. A team of curriculum developers, computer programmers, and Spanish teachers designed homework activities for this effort.

The Spanish faculty randomly selected 30 students out of a class of 90 and equipped each one with a networked laptop computer. The students were asked not only to complete, but also to deliver their homework on computers. In the meanwhile, the remaining 60 students were doing homework in a traditional manner. During the last six weeks of their 25-week program, the computerized students were connected to the Internet provider of their choice. The students spent many hours of their own time on the Internet. Colonel Devlin added, "They were talking with people in South America on a daily basis." The Commandant stated that the advances of the computerized group of students were tremendous. "They loved the program," he said. He showed the results of the experiment and the control groups which indicated that the experiment group definitely outperformed, notably in speaking, the latter. The students in the experimental group achieved remarkably high scores.

Many language professionals have supported the idea of "computerized homework." Similar findings were achieved by Professor Beauvois of the University of Tennessee at Knoxville, who conducted communication experiments with a group of the fourth-semester French students using a local area network[3]. Her experiment indicated that students who communicated via computers obtained one-grade higher scores than the ones who communicated in a traditional classroom. Moreover, in a post-experiment survey, they indicated their preference for the computer mode.

Colonel Devlin informed the APR participants that the only barrier from full implementation of this successful program is the lack of funds. Due to financial restrictions, the experiment could be repeated on a limited basis only in every other class. He stated that he has been looking at all possible sources of financing for this project. Appealing to the participants for support, he stressed, "Look how successful we are and how much more successful we can be."

Colonel Devlin's description of the experiment in the Spanish program aroused a lot of interest among conference participants. The participants demonstrated their support for the project by offering suggestions on obtaining additional funding. They discussed the possibility of charging the computer costs to the standard military equipment account rather than as a training cost. One representative encouraged DLIFLC to persistently request money from sources that have labeled their funds ostensibly "not for training." Another participant added that proper justification may have an impact on the distribution of funds.

Implementation of the "computerized homework" idea would facilitate forging service members into the 21st century warriors of *Vision 2010* in several ways. First, it would place DLIFLC students in cyberspace from day one of instruction by giving them learning opportunities that go beyond classroom walls. Second, it would forge character within the 21st Century Warriors by training them to act alone and to take responsibility for their own actions. Third, it would instantly unfold the real complex world awaiting them after graduation and thus would prepare them to act in it.

Nonresident Language Program

Currently, military linguists can maintain and enhance their skills through enrollment in Video Tele-Training (VTT) and Mobile Training Team (MTT) programs. The Chief of Operations, Plans and Programs (OPP), Lieutenant Colonel Richard Chastain, stated that in 1998 the Institute provided 4 resident and 4 nonresident CLPM courses and trained

148 managers. Nonresident support was also given by MTTs. Specifically, in FY98 over a thousand students obtained 8,900 hours of instruction in 12 languages. The military usually provides resources for two weeks of MTT training. In some cases, however, the linguists need four to five weeks of MTT training rather than just two; thus there is a need to request additional training funds. Further, he stated that the Institute delivered 7,156 hours of instruction in VTT to 13 locations in 11 languages. He added that 40 hours per month of Desktop VTT was offered on the average to 4 locations in 4 languages. Additionally, through the Worldwide Language Olympics, 43 teams obtained training via VTT (compared to 153 teams who participated in resident games).

LTC Chastain informed the audience that since September 1998 DLIFLC has assumed responsibility for several Center for Applied Language Learning (CALL) functions. DLIFLC has become a virtual resource center for less commonly taught languages. Additionally, he said that DLIFLC has become a lead agency for creating a unified language testing program: Currently, the Institute is involved in development of speaking tests.

Pointing to the high number of 1998 CLPM Seminar participants, LTC Chastain invited the CLPMs and administrators to attend the upcoming CLPM seminar on enhancing linguist training through diagnostics. The seminar will also recognize the CLP of the Year, the 704th MI BDE of Fort Meade, Maryland.

Washington Contract Language Program

The head of the DLIFLC-Washington Office, Lieutenant Colonel Griffith Hughes, stated that three primary functions of his mission are: Molink operation support, representation of DLIFLC in Washington, DC, and foreign language training. The Molink mission focuses on providing specialized training for the White House translators. Next, he stated the DLIFLC Washington office provides training in 52 languages through language program contracts, often on a short-order basis. Sometimes within one week of a request they start the program. He stated the number of students and the duration of instruction determine validity of a contract award. In general, contracts are cost effective whenever the enrollment is sparse and the program length is short. Further, he informed the participants that the candidates for a contract award are tested using the DLPT. He commented that the contractors, unlike the permanent DLIFLC faculty in Monterey, do not create their instructional materials, but often request the instructional materials from the DLIFLC.

Resident Program

Reviewing the progress of the Institute in 1998, Colonel Devlin stated that increased enrollments and lower attrition were two major trends that emerged during the year. He stated that in 1998, 2076 students graduated from the Institute in comparison to 1500 in 1997. He also pointed out that, in 1998 compared to 1997, both the academic and the administrative attrition figures also have decreased, with the latter down to just over 13 percent. Further, Colonel Devlin pointed out that administrative attrition was lower than academic attrition by 2 percentage points.

He indicated that occasionally attrition numbers increase because students, lacking maturity, do not take the program seriously. On the other hand, promising students can be given the opportunity to mature at the Institute. He explained that 18-year old students may not be as well equipped for the intensity of DLIFLC language training. Sending them on through the program and waiving them (if they do not score high enough) will provide them the opportunity and time to grow and mature. Most of their scores will go up in the field. He added that statistical data existed to support this claim. He cited several examples of students who have left the Institute at overall 1+ levels, but currently score 2+ to 3—and better. He even mentioned that as a result of this progress, the Air Force (not the Army, unfortunately, he joked) has been complaining to him that because of the high proficiency of recent DLIFLC graduates, they need to place them in jobs normally reserved for higher ranking linguists. "These are the problems I love to have…" he mused. Additionally, some students have difficulty with a particular language; placing them in other languages often rectifies the problem.

Presenting the FY98 proficiency final learning objective (FLO) shown through the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) results, Colonel Devlin stated significant progress was made in 1998. Despite a 25% increase in enrollments in Category IV languages (the most difficult), students have performed very well at the Institute. The Colonel stated that all graduates attained 2/2 before they were sent to follow-on training or into the field. He said students who scored below the minimum required for follow-on training, were enrolled for 12 to 16 weeks in follow-on instruction to upgrade their proficiencies. Addressing concerns of field commanders, he stated, "It is cheaper to retrain or set students back, than to send them to different specialties. More money is spent in recruiting to get new, potential linguists."

The Commandant reiterated his long-held concern about proficiency scores: What's the difference between 1+ and 2? A big difference when it comes to job assignments, pay, and institute statistics. In reality, however, he pointed out, the proficiency difference may be minute, amounting to perhaps just one point on a test. Moreover, he pointed out, his testing staff has informed him that sometimes students achieve lower scores in speaking just because they do not answer exactly what they are expected to say. He explained that although a question may lend itself to more than one answer, a student who does not come up with exactly the expected answer is given a lower score. Colonel Devlin stated that he has directed his staff to solve this problem.

Colonel Devlin emphasized that increased overall proficiency results constituted another major trend of basic programs in the last two years. He showed to the participants the results which indicated that scores in reading surpassed the scores in listening and speaking.

Next, Colonel Devlin reviewed language programs. Pointing with pride to charts showing attainment of Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) level 3s in some skills in several language programs, he commented about the students, "talented young people." Colonel Devlin attributed good results in the Arabic language program, the largest in the country, to a combination of good teamwork and adequate technological support. He also expressed satisfaction with progress in Chinese, Korean, Spanish, French, and Japanese. He pointed out that the Chinese faculty has pioneered waging their professional success on student success by viewing their students as customers rather than products. Further, he stated the Korean program has achieved even better results during the 18 months after implementing its new curriculum. He added that these results were partially due to the limited but expanding, use of the Internet. This use of the web helps students communicate in a foreign language, increases student proficiency, and prepares them for their future use of the Internet.

Summing up the programs, Colonel Devlin boasted that today the entry level capabilities of teachers is higher than those of many years ago. He stated that today's teachers have MAs and PhDs in foreign language education, in addition to a native proficiency in the target language. He also added that the Institute pays the tuition of teachers enrolled in Master of Arts in Teaching Foreign Language degree program through the Monterey Institute of International Studies to further expand their professional development.

Devlin stated that the Institute has been searching for several years for partners in the industry to develop language materials. According to him finding such a partner is not an easy task because DFLP linguists need products aiming at higher levels of language than the ones produced by commercial publishers. He added that he is conducting an extensive search for partners in the software industry and some promising contacts are beginning to emerge.

In looking beyond what the DLIFLC is doing internally for its academic programs, the Commandant also added that the Institute is conducting an experiment to improve the matching of students' learning styles to a particular language and mode of learning. DLAB scores combined with these experimental measures have had a positive impact on many students on a limited basis. The Commandant added that the findings are so positive that he is going to ask for money to conduct an official study throughout the Institute.

The next speaker, the DLIFLC Provost, Dr. Ray T. Clifford, addressed issues concerning the faculty at the Institute. The Provost stated that in 1998 faculty members taught a record number of classroom hours—569,000 in the resident program alone. A great increase has taken place in the number of hours of small group, split-section sessions. This increase was achieved despite the understaffed Korean and Arabic programs. Dr. Clifford stated that since small groups benefit students, he has been encouraging faculty members to teach even more of these types of class hours.

Further, he stated that, in accordance with the Faculty Personnel System (FPS), DLIFLC teachers are evaluated, in part, by proficiency scores attained by their students. He informed the APR participants that he had developed a formula tying in the DLAB scores and academic attrition with final proficiency scores. The score obtained from that formula quantifies teacher input into student achievement more than relying solely on test scores.

The Provost also noted that the Institute has launched a Diagnostic Assessment program to prepare selected teachers to identify strengths and weaknesses of students as well as linguists in the field. The teachers then develop a learning plan unique to each student or linguist. Through counseling, they found out that learners tend to make progress in areas in which they are already good, avoiding the weak ones. The new initiative is designed to help learners improve in areas which they need to do so the most.

While describing progress in curriculum development, Clifford pointed out that courses, especially the low-enrollment ones, are getting outdated faster than the new ones are developed due to lack of funding to develop new curricula. He stated that the course textbook writers need 25 hours of development per hour of instruction with production and test development taking time on top of that. Clifford also informed the participants that the first phase of the new Arabic Grammar Track has been successfully developed and currently a revision of Serbian/Croatian language materials is being conducted. He stated that funding is needed for development of traditional paper-and-pencil instructional and testing materials.

Dean Reports

Following the Provost, individual school deans reviewed the high enrollment programs. Professor Luba Grant, Dean of Middle East School I, gave a report on progress in the Arabic language program, Professor Peter Armbust of Asian School I presented the Chinese language program, Professor Thomas Parry gave a report on the Asian School II Korean program. Professor Taba Tabai of European School II reported on the progress in the Persian program, and Professor Deana Tovar, Dean of the European School I, described the Russian language program and Serbian/Croatian program. Professor Ben dela Selva, Dean of European and Latin American School, gave a report on the Spanish language program and initiatives.

Professor Grant stated that during FY98 dynamic changes took place in the two Middle East schools concurrently with an increase in enrollments from 474 in FY97 to 642 in FY98. The Arabic language program, currently the largest at the Institute, is divided into two schools. Professor Christine Campbell has become the Dean of Middle East School II. This high enrollment caused a rapid influx of new faculty in need of training and an increased demand for learning materials. Despite these high enrollments, student completion rates went up from 65% to 69%. Professor Grant stated that 8 Intermediate and 10 Basic Arabic classes were completed during 1998. She added that in addition to Modern Standard Arabic, each student completed 75 hours of instruction in Syrian, Iraqi, and Egyptian dialects. Following a total of 5-weeks training in the dialects, each student was expected to identify the dialect and answer basic questions in it. The Dean also informed the audience that the teachers and the students have found the first phase of the computerized grammar track helpful. Current faculty are developing phase two and three grammar tracks, which are due in September 1999. Finally, the Dean stated that, in addition to resident training, the Arabic language program offered 1,768 hours of MTT and 1,259 hours of VTT to Fort Huachuca, Camp Lejune, and other places.

Professor Armburst described the progress of the Chinese program. He stated that the program's Proficiency FLO scores on the

DLPT mirrored the overall proficiency scores at the Institute; they were highest in reading, and the lowest in speaking. Professor Armburst stated that he had instituted several procedures to improve Proficiency FLO abilities in the school. He conducts monthly meetings with local service unit representatives to discuss problem students and offers after-school remedial programs. The Dean stated that he was particularly concerned about the declining Performance (job skill) FLO and Speaking Proficiency FLO scores. Professor Armburst pointed out that, occasionally, low Performance FLO scores have been caused by inadequate English language skills of students at the Institute. For example, he pointed out, some students have had difficult time writing a broadcast summary even in English. Subsequently, he has implemented remedial English training for the incoming students. To improve speaking scores, he implemented new in-course evaluations and a task list for each proficiency level. Additionally, he created opportunities for faculty training on the ILR proficiency scale. Together with the faculty and staff, he has participated in discussions on success in language learning and ways to motivate students.

Professor Parry stated that despite increased enrollments from 329 in 1997 to 369 in 1998, the attrition actually went down by one percentage point. The Dean stated that average Proficiency FLO scores for 1998 were higher than those for 1997. Namely, the students scored higher in reading by 12%; and listening, by 19%. On the other hand, Proficiency FLO scores in speaking declined by 9% in comparison to 1997. In closing, Professor Parry stated that the growing Asian School II is currently establishing a fifth department, hiring and training new faculty, and validating the recently developed Korean Basic program.

Professor Taba Tabai presented student figures which also mirrored the trends of the other schools; namely, 9% higher enrollments and 3% lower attrition. The Dean stated that the Persian program promotes speaking by placing Persian signs in the hallways and the classrooms. Thus, students refer to realia in a contextualized setting. The Dean stated that the faculty and staff are currently focussing on improving assessment of student skills and providing designing more effective speaking activities.

Professor Tovar reported that, in general, the Russian program followed the pattern of the other languages at the Institute. Namely, increased enrollments, from 422 in FY97 to 601 in FY98, were accompanied by lower total attrition, from 31% to 29%. The Dean stated she has been providing opportunities for the Russian faculty to enhance their classroom observation skills and broaden their knowledge of proficiency levels. She also stated that she has been promoting both teamwork and effective, consistent computer lab usage: Students, in groups, work on authentic foreign language texts found on the Internet.

Subsequently, Professor Tovar presented information on the growing Serbian/Croatian program. Five teachers joined the department in 1998. The Dean stated that from 1997 to 1998 the department had an increase in enrollment from 40 to 49 students and in attrition from 4% to 12% students. According to the Dean, the department is currently revising and developing the basic program. Developers of core and supplementary materials focus on skill integration. Subsequently, the new materials are validated and accompanying tests are developed. Finally, she informed the APR participants that in 1998 the staff of the Serbian/Croatian department provided support to three MTTs; one at the Medina RSOC and two at Fort Hood.

Program Demonstrations

The following day, during a morning of special activities, several service and agency representatives elected to attend VTT and LingNet presentations guided by an OPP representative, MSGT Charles A. Carroll. First, he led the participants in observing a Russian lesson offered via VTT to two students at Fort Meade. They observed from the same studio in which a Russian teacher, sitting at a desk, was conversing with two students. The teacher could observe two TV screens in front of her, one showing her, the teacher, and the other one, the two students. The students were conversing with each other and the teacher. The sound was clear and the black and white picture was sharp. Following a variety of technical questions, the participants moved on to the next room where another teacher was preparing a Persian lesson. She was reviewing an interview for the upcoming hour of instruction.

As amazing as this two-way interactive instructional mode of delivery is, it is still offers possibilities for further development. For example, at the present moment, a classroom has only one camera. Thus, a student who would like to show a picture to the teacher needs to walk up to the camera in the center of the room. Also the technology for displaying VCR material on the screen could be improved. Currently, the teacher cannot share the screen with the VCR image, but has to alternate the screen manually between the VCR and the teaching projections. Even without these capabilities, the participants were amazed how fast and smooth, in split seconds, the instructional process flowed from the teacher at the Institute to the students on the East Coast. The session took longer than expected because the APR participants expressed great interest in this type of instruction. Instead of moving on, they kept asking questions about the process.

Subsequently, Mr. Schwinof of OPP gave a presentation of LingNet operations and services. LingNet, created by the DLIFLC, at the present time has 7,900 members. It contains a database of 1,600 foreign language learning resources, a database of commercial language learning materials, real-time conferencing, and an extensive library containing journals such as *Applied Language Learning* and *Dialog on Language Instruction.*

Discussion

During the conference, both the presenters and the discussants agreed that the implementation of the experimental programs at the Institute and the Command Language Programs worldwide were successful. DLIFLC students, teachers, and management found the Spanish computerized homework, Arabic computerized grammar, and the Korean Internet innovations helpful and effective in training. In a similar vein, the US service members worldwide found LingNet, VTT, and MTT programs helpful in maintaining and enhancing their language skills.

The APR participants extensively discussed language requirements, funding, language standards, and types and levels of skills. While discussing language requirements, the most popular topic among the participants, Mr. Glenn Nordin of ASD/C3I noted a distinction between the current DoD and the national language requirements. Mr. Nordin explained that the national language requirements call on the federal government for maintaining linguistic capabilities in 150 languages. Factors such as the concentrated sites of world populations, economic interests, and political agendas should be considered in setting national language requirements. He pointed out that while current requirements may go down or up depending on a political situation, national language requirements are less volatile.

A majority of the participants expressed concerns about current stated language requirements. Some of them pointed out that these requirements are constrained by funding. In some cases, they explained, they could not provide funding because the requirements were not stated at all or were stated too late. Mr. Everette Jordan, Chairman of the Foreign Language Committee, stated that CALL and its programs could be saved if the requirements were timely. The participants could be heard advising one another, " state the requirements," or "identify your sustainment needs." Overall, one could frequently hear questions and calls for action regarding the status of language requirements.

Discussions on standards revealed that the federal government is developing national standards, looking to the commercial world for models. Mr. Nordin called for a standardized way of testing the military and the civilian language professional (such as candidates for teachers, translators, and interpreters). He stated, "Federal language schools need to follow National Standards. Go to translation and interpretation researchers for models. The community needs a test that would enable federal employers to hire the best people. The standards in the federal government need to be as high as they are in the commercial world where contractors have to pass the certification test to get the job."

Several interesting discussions evolved also around the types and levels of language skills learned at the DLIFLC. One of the representatives pointed out that the military linguists should be taught all four skills rather than just listening, reading, and speaking. He pointed out that the elimination of writing requirements puts linguists at a disadvantage because frequently they are required to write memoranda, letters, and reports in the target language. Additionally, as the Internet is becoming more popular, linguists are increasingly using it as a means of communicating with one another.

The participants asked questions about the availability of new versions of language proficiency tests. Testing managers promised several new computer delivered versions by June 1999. The term *computer-delivered* prompted a discussion among the participants regarding the distinction between computer-delivered and computer-adaptive tests. Computer-delivered testing simply amounts to administering and taking currently available tests on computers. Computer-adaptive testing involves progressive language probing. Testers respond to harder and harder questions until a sustained level of performance is achieved. This is the "dream" of future DLIFLC tests. The participants emphasized that they would prefer development of computer-adaptive tests.

On several occasions talks centered on exit requirements of training programs. The participants discussed whether they should be 2/2/1 in listening, reading, and speaking, respectively. The participants addressed the dilemma of DLIFLC's higher exit goals and follow-on training sites' lower entrance requirements, "We tell our student that the requirement is 2/2/2, yet Goodfellow AFB tells them, it accepts 2/2/1." Colonel Devlin diverted the focus of the discussion by reiterating his call for high standards, "My goal is 3/3/3."

Implications

The discussions and the presentations centered on reviewing language requirements. The participants noted a cause-effect relationship between needs, requirements, and funding. They noted that funding cannot be provided without a requirement, a requirement cannot be stated without a statement of need.

The participants, including representatives from the Army, Air Force, Navy, and Marines Corps, became aware of the importance of the Foreign Language Master Plans. The discussions, in particular, indicated that setting up the requirements is a complex process that needs to be woven through the inter- and intra-agency efforts. First, a service agency would formulate the needs or requirements in generic, basic terms. Such a statement would contain information on priority needs, military readiness, preferred methodologies, linguist sharing strategies, linguist lifecycle plans, and linguist utilization strategies. Second, guided by this general statement, the service specialists, in their area of expertise, would fill in numbers, figures, costs, and alternatives. As a result of collaborative effort of specialists within an agency, a requirement proposal would be formulated. They would verbalize such a requirement in the realm of time (current, future, and permanent) and extent (limited, medium, and full). Third, the proposals would be jointly reviewed and discussed with service representatives and translated into one joint military linguist requirement statement which in turn would be reviewed by the Office of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. The entire process would be periodically, preferably annually, repeated. Fourth, these requirements would be used to conduct needs analysis. Such analysis would contain information on types of training, availability, quality and quantity of training packages, and methods of learning. Available versus needed would be highlighted in the analysis. Information on types would focus on basic, reconstructive, maintenance, enhancement, transfer, and cross training. Information on methods would include technology-generated ways of teaching and contrast of new and old ways of teaching. It would also include a statement on language standards and certification requirements. Finally, on the basis of the needs analysis, training requirements would be formulated.

The discussion on language readiness in the military prompted more questions than answers. It was challenging because it forced the participants to think of ways and means of setting up a new language program that unexpectedly could become an urgent requirement. Constructively, the participants left with questions in their minds:

- What languages could come up? How many?
- What requirements could be expected?
- What skills would be required?
- What resources would be needed? Where could they be obtained?
- What preparations could be made now for such occurrences?
- What prototypes could be used?
- Is data on language training packages available?
- Is data on language methodology available?
- Who is responsible for maintaining and updating the information?
- Are instructions on crosstraining and transfer verbalized?

The conference presentations and discussions also dealt with the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) skill level descriptions. The reading scores were consistently higher in listening and speaking and led to questions:

- Are all reading subskills tested? Is reading aloud, for example, included?
- Are student responses adequately credited?
- Should writing also be included in testing?
- How should the attainment be reported? By level only? By level and percentile score? By percentile score only?
- Are the tasks adequate for all levels?
- What strategies are taken to avoid the terminal one or two learners?

Conclusions

After two days of immersion in the inner worlds of attrition and enrollment figures, computerized homework, achievement and proficiency charts, and hidden meanings of acronyms, the Commandant took the podium again to bring the APR participants back to a core issue. He reminded everyone of the centrality of the student in the conference proceedings. Ultimately, no one else but the DLIFLC graduates perform the military language services to guard the security of the Nation.

Finally, the Commandant called on all the participants to share the APR information with their organizations and to follow-up the ideas that were raised. Colonel Devlin also pointed out that no person alone can transform an idea into an everyday activity performed by hundreds of people; only a team can do it. Caught between little traditions and cyberspace efficiencies, the Commandant of the Institute asked the participants at the end of the day:

- What can you do to make the computerized-homework project live?
- What can your agency do to breath life into this project?

In the spirit of *Vision 2010,* Colonel Devlin created an opportunity for the participants to respond. The promptness and quality of the response is now in their hands.

Notes

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Author

LIDIA WOYTAK, Editor, Academic Journals. Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: foreign language education, technical writing.

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ACTFL Conference Attendance Highest Ever *

Robert Lee
European School 1

Yoshimi Allard
Asian School 1

The 1997 Conference of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) was held in Nashville, Tennessee, November 20-23, with about 5,500 participants, the largest number ever to attend. Six-hundred sessions on methodologies, cultural aspects of language learning, and available technologies were held during the four days.

Objectives and Suggestions

DLIFLC attendees were assigned no specific guidelines to follow, so they pursued their own interests and tried to see and experience as much as possible. Those who had participated in previous ACTFL conferences had the following suggestions for first-time attendees.

- Register early. Many attendees crowd into the registration area on the morning of the first day and lose time waiting in lines.
- Read the conference program to determine which sessions you want to attend. Decide on second and third alternates in case your first choice becomes unavailable.
- Spend a few minutes studying the map showing where sessions will be held. Don't waste time by getting lost.
- Set a realistic pace for yourself when planning the number of sessions you want to attend.
- Consult with other DLIFLC participants on the sessions you plan to attend. Sometimes members of a delegation can split up to cover more sessions.
- Take along a supply of personal business cards. Many attendees find them especially useful at the conference's tech and book fair.

Internet and Computer Technology in the Classroom

Because of great interest in the Internet there were many demonstrations and question-and-answer sessions on using worldwide web materials in the classroom and in classroom activities developed through the Internet programming language, *HTML*.

Many classroom activities that relied upon using the Internet "real time" met with difficulties when a particular site or web page went down. This point was raised in almost every session in which the Internet was discussed as a teaching tool. Attendees wanted to know how to make the Internet more reliable in the classroom.

Participants from the U.S. Air Force Academy came up with a solution. They downloaded specific web pages from the Internet and incorporated them into language learning activities. Next, the downloaded web pages were linked together using the simple HTML programming language. In this way, teachers were able to customize activities to fit learners' needs.

An additional benefit, of particular concern to the Academy participants, was that this solution provided network security. By downloading information on a stand-alone computer and checking for viruses prior to uploading on the network, the Academy participants were able to maintain strict control over information on the network. Another benefit of this solution is that one can write to and distribute CD ROM disks.

Most participants said they used the Internet for accessing target language newspapers and magazines. They raised such issues as compatibility, user-friendliness, and hardware capability. They discussed the effectiveness of language learning using the Internet compared to conventional ways of teaching. They discussed the question of whether the Internet is simply another but more costly resource to obtain materials. They discussed its use in teaching listening skills. Participants pointed out that while the technology of this field advances rapidly, one must explore innovative and cost-effective approaches to language learning.

Although we expected to see cutting-edge teaching methodologies demonstrated—methodologies that might spur intense discussion as to their effectiveness or validity—we were disappointed.

For example, during the session "Teaching Verbal and Nonverbal Skills in Business Japanese," two practical methods of teaching verbal and nonverbal interactions were presented. These activities, although presented as somewhat new in their approach, were what we often do at DLIFLC. Many of our teachers use task-based instruction or two-way information gap roleplays. It would be a great contribution to the language community if DLIFLC teachers who are experienced in using such activities would demonstrate them at ACTFL conferences.

DLIFLC, although not necessarily on the cutting edge, by no means is lagging behind.

Editor's Note: Though this article addresses the 1997 conference, its information remains valid.

Review

Peter Watcyn-Jones: *Pair Work 1: Conversation Practice for Elementary to Pre-Intermediate Students*, Penguin Books (1997)

Reviewed by Yoshimi Allard
Asian School I

This book offers many concrete ideas for language teachers who try to create meaningful interactions in the classroom. It does not include sample conversation scripts, as one might expect in a conversation practice book. It is a task-based activities book.

According to research conducted by T. Pica, task-oriented interaction allows students to negotiate and increase their comprehensible input (Pica, Young, and Doughty, 1987). It also involves students in meaningful communication. The meaningful communication is produced when students by themselves choose how to talk and what to talk about. It is the way we communicate in the real world. In a classroom, however, such interaction has to be generated by a teacher.

The author's intention in this activities book is to create such interactive situations among students. Each activity assigns tasks that students can accomplish only by getting necessary information from other students, thereby generating a conversation.

Activities

The book contains 41 pair activities, including roleplays, information-gap activities, and problem-solving activities. Each activity takes from five to twenty minutes. Each provides two task sheets for two students -- Students A and B. The information provided to Student A is different from that provided to Student B.

In one activity, both Student A and Student B are given the same drawing of a kitchen, but the drawing given to Student A shows kitchen items placed in various locations. These depictions are omitted from the drawing given to Student B. Students A and B must talk with each other for Student B to find out where things are located.

In another activity, Students A and B are given incomplete information on the life of Elvis Presley. The pair can produce a set of facts by obtaining each other's information. The author says this type of information-gap activity causes students to listen more carefully and prepares them to respond to unexpected information, as in the real world.

Such pair activities have several strengths. (1) They offer students more opportunities to practice speaking, as everyone can be involved in the activity at the same period of time. (2) They improve the quality of student speech, enabling students to use a wider range of speech through negotiation work. (3) They create more individualized work. (4) They are positive and affirmative activities that motivate students. According to Pica and Doughty (1985) and Long (1985), this type of activity among students is as effective as one with a native speaker.

How to Use the Book

Preparations: The book urges teachers to photocopy pages and use them in classroom activities. Not all of the activities, however, are compatible with all cultural settings. The book is published in England and maps of England and Europe are used for activities such as traveling. These activities may require adaptation for use in your classroom.

Pre-activity: Although each activity is provided with clear instructions for students to read and follow, students may be confused about the procedure and the purpose of the activity. Students will understand better if the teacher starts with an example and demonstrates the activity first.

During the activity: Teachers can monitor the activity by walking around the classroom.

Post-activity: Students can review sentence patterns or write or make a summary speech. The post-activity is used to reinforce students' knowledge of the language.

The activities the book offers can help teachers develop their own activities that are appropriate for a particular lesson.

The author has produced a second volume in the same series. The second volume is designed for intermediate students.

References

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 737-758.

Long, M., & Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition *TESOL Quarterly, 1*, 207-228.

General Information

Calendar of Events*

1999

6-9 March, *American Association of Applied Linguistics*, Stamford. Information AAAL, (612) 953-0805, Fax (612) 431-8404, PO Box 21686, Eagan, MN 55121-0686; Email [aaaloffice@aaal.org].

8-14 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, New York. Information TESOL, (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864. 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751; Email [conv@tesol.edu], URL [www.tesol.edu].

11-13 March, *Southern Conference on Language Teaching with Foreign Language Association of Virginia*, Virginia Beach. Information Lynne McClendon, SCOLT Executive Director, (770) 992-1256, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; Email [lynnemcc@mindspring.com].

7-10 April, *Pacific Northwest Council for Languages*, Tacoma. Information PNCFL, PO Box 4649, Portland, OR 97208-4649; Email [112063.622@compuserve.com].

8-11 April, *Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, New York. Information Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; Email [nectfl@dickinson.edu], URL [www.dickinson.edu/nectfl].

8-11 April, *American Hungarian Educators Association*, Cleveland. Information Martha Pereszlenyi-Pinter, Classical & Modern Languages & Cultures, (216) 397-4723, FAX (216) 397-4256, John Carroll University, Cleveland, Ohio 44118; Email [mpereszlenyi@jcvaxa.jcu.edu], URL [http://www.magyar.org/home.html].

15-18 April, *Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Little Rock. Information CSCTFL, Rosalie Cheatham, (501) 569-8159, Fax (501) 569-8157, University of Arkansas - Little Rock, 2801 S. University Avenue, Little Rock, AR 72204; Email [rmcheatham@ualr.edu].

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*Courtesy of *The Modern Language Journal* (University of Wisconsin)

13-15 May, *JNCL-NCLIS Delegate Assembly*, Washington. Information JNCL-NCLIS, (202) 966-8477, 4646 40th St. NW, Third Floor, Washington DC 20016; Email [info@languagepolicy.org], URL [http://www.languagepolicy.org].

20-23 May, *Language Teacher Education*, Minneapolis. Information International Conference on Language Teacher Education, CARLA, (612) 627-1870, Fax (612) 624-1875, UTEC, Suite 111, 1313 5th St SE, Minneapolis, MN 55414; E-mail [carla@tc.umn.edu], URL [http://carla.acad.umn.edu].

22-30 May, *Conseil International d'Etudes Francophones*, Lafayette. Information Ginette Adamson, Fax (316) 978-3319, Modern Languages, Wichita State University, Wichita, KS 67260-0011; Email [adamson@twsuvm.uc.twsu.edu].

30 May-4 June, *Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium*, Oxford. Information Esther Callais, (512) 245-1417, Department of Modern Languages, Southwest Texas State University, San Marcos, TX 78666; Email [info@calico.org].

3-6 June, *ADFL Seminar West*, Palo Alto. Information Association of Departments of Foreign Languages, Attn: Elizabeth Welles, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Email [elizabeth.welles@mla.org].

11-14 July, *American Association of Teachers of French*, St. Louis. Information AATF, (618) 453-5731, Fax (618) 453-5733, Mailcode 4510, Department of Foreign Languages, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; Email [abrate@siu.edu], URL [aatf.utsa.edu].

30 July-3 August, *American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese*, Denver. Information AATSP, (970) 351-1090, Fax (970) 351-1095, Butler-Hancock Hall #210, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639; Email [lsandste@bentley.unco.edu].

16-21 August, *International Association of Teachers of Russian Language and Literature*, Bratislava (Slovakia). Information American Council of Teachers of Russian (ACTR), (202) 833-7522, Fax (202) 833-7523, 1776 Massachusetts Ave. NW, Suite 700, Washington, DC 20036; Email [ddavidson@actr.org].

28-30 October, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina*, High Point. Information Debra S. Martin, FLANC Executive

Director, (828) 686-4985, Fax (828) 686-3600, PO Box 19153, Asheville, NC 28815; Email [martintl@interpath.com].

4-6 November, *Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers*, Appleton. Information Kyle Gorden, (414) 723-6316, 4969 Hickory Court, Elkhorn, WI 53121; Email [kylegorden@elknet.net].

17-18 November, *National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages*, Dallas. Information Sharon Watts, (402) 557-2440, Omaha Public Schools, 3215 Cuming, Omaha, NE 63131; Email [swatts@ops.org].

18-21 November, *American Association for the Advancement of Slavic Studies*, St. Louis. Information AAASS; Email [walker@core-mail.fas.harvard.edu].

19-21 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, Dallas. Information ACTFL, (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; Email [actflhq@aol.com], URL [http://www.actfl.org].

19-21 November, *American Association of Teachers of German*, Dallas. Information AATG, (609) 795-5553, Fax (609) 795-9398, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; Email [73740.3231@compuserve.com].

27-30 December, *Modern Language Association of America*, Chicago. Information MLA, Fax (212) 477-9863, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Email [convention@mla.org].

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech*, Chicago. Information Masako Ueda, (401) 863-3933, Fax (401) 863-7330, Box E, Department of Slavic Languages, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912; Email [masako_ueda@brown.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages*, Chicago. Information AATSEEL, Fax (520) 885-2663, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Email [76703.2063@compuserve.com], URL [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

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24-26 February, *Southern Conference on Language Teaching with Alabama Association of Foreign Language Teachers*, Birmingham. Information Lynne McClendon, SCOLT Executive Director, (770) 992-1256, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell GA 30076; Email [lynnemcc@mindspring.com].

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4-6 May, *Balkan and South Slavic Linguistics, Literature and Folkore*, Lawrence. Information Marc L. Greenberg, Dept. of Slavic Languages and Literatures, Fax (785) 864-4298, 2134 Wescoe Hall, Lawrence, KS 66045-2174; Email [m-greenberg@ukans.edu].

TBA July, *American Association of Teachers of French*, Paris. Information AATF, (618) 453-5731, Fax (618) 453-5733, Mailcode 4510, Department of Foreign Languages, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; Email [abrate@siu.edu].

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Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLIFLC faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit a previously unpublished article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession. *Dialog on Language Instruction* accepts only original manuscripts with the understanding that they have not been submitted for publication elsewhere.

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th Ed., 1994), available from the American Psychological Association, P. O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and list findings. The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References.* The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(1), 93-95.

Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of the manuscript should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g., (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript. Notes should be used for substantive information only, and they should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript. Subsequently, they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes.*

Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

Reviews

Manuscripts should not exceed two double-spaced pages. Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, video tapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but brief statement of the works contents and a critical assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be typed on 8.5 x 11 in. paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1.25 in. on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized. Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An author's name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLIFLC), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

Author

JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306. Specializations: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

Specifications for Floppy Disks

Where feasible, manuscripts are preferred on 3.5" disk. Manuscript produced on DOS or Macintosh systems should be formatted as MS-DOS file on a double density disk, if possible. MS Word files are preferred.

When mailing a floppy disk, please enclose the following:

1. Word processing software used: ____________________

2. Disk is formatted as: double___ high density___

3. Remarks: ____________________
____

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their names on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3 x 5 in. card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division,

1072

and telephone number.

Each author will be informed of the evaluation results. In general, a manuscript will be accepted for publication if two anonymous readers recommend acceptance, and, by the same token, manuscripts not recommended by the readers for publication will be rejected. In cases in which one reader recommends acceptance, and the second one, rejection—a third reader will be asked to review the manuscript.

Accepted Manuscripts

A manuscript accepted for publication may be accepted "as is" or may require certain revisions which may target the need to consider other sources, or to elaborate on a certain point; or, finally, may address such minor details as a typo or a lack of citation. In the latter case, the author is asked to revise it and subsequently the editor checks whether the author complied thoroughly with the guidance.

Rejected Manuscripts

Manuscripts are rejected due to such major flaws as:

- inappropriate/unsuitable topic for DLIFLC
- lack of purpose
- lack of organization
- poor quality of writing
- lack of applicability to instruction

The editor duly informs the author that the manuscript is unacceptable for publication. Normally this finding ends the revision process.

In some cases, an author whose manuscript was already rejected decides to revise the manuscript thoroughly and to resubmit it for publication. Since the quality of the version is unpredictable, no promises can be issued to the author regarding publication.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to *Dialog on Language Instruction, ATTN*: ATFL-AP-AJ (Editor), Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.

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